NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL Monterey, California



THESIS

DEVELOPMENT, CORRELATION AND UPDATING OF A FINITE ELEMENT MODEL OF THE OH-6A HELICOPTER

by

Michael R. Pampalone

December 1996

Thesis Advisor:

Joshua H. Gordis

Second Reader:

E. Roberts Wood

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Previous research on the OH-6A at NPS established baseline vibration test data. The data includes natural frequencies, principal mode shapes and damping characteristics. This thesis continues previous research of the OH-6A and develops a detailed finite element model to be used in future helicopter dynamics research at NPS.

The model is based on an MSC/NASTRAN finite element model of a similar aircraft obtained from the McDonnell Douglas Helicopter Company. Both the nose and empennage were modified to represent the structural characteristics of the test article. Due to lack of structural design data, model mass updating was performed using previously obtained test data and a design sensitivity approach. The updated model natural frequencies agree well with the test data.

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DEVELOPMENT, CORRELATION AND UPDATING OF A FINITE ELEMENT MODEL OF THE OH-6A HELICOPTER

Michael R. Pampalone Lieutenant, United States Navy B.S., The Citadel, 1988

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Author:	Mah / R Papa/			
	Michael R. Pampalone			
Approved by:	Jahn Hally			
	Joshua H. Gordis, Thesis Advisor			
	EX.W)			
	E. Roberts Wood, Second Reader			
	- RMIUles			
	Terry R. McNelley, Chairman			
	Department of Mechanical Engineering			

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I. INTRODUCTION

Vibration reduction has long been a primary concern of helicopter design engineers. The inherently vibratory nature of the complex rotating machinery associated with helicopters has made this task particularly difficult. Additionally, ever increasing cost and lower vibration tolerance of complex helicopter avionics systems puts even greater emphasis on vibration level reduction. An accurate finite element model (FEM) is invaluable in developing modern aircraft which minimize vibrations while achieving higher performance.

With the revolution in computing capability over the last several years, the FEM has become an integral part of structural dynamics research. This is especially true in the study of helicopter vibrations. Prior to the development of robust finite element computer models, dynamics analysis was completed using iterative tests on full scale models. The costs associated with developing a full scale model of a modern helicopter make this approach impractical. The FEM provides a means to conduct preliminary dynamic analysis relatively inexpensively prior to conducting a full scale test. This approach greatly reduces development costs. The FEM is also used to test and develop new aircraft components and airframe modifications and to investigate vibration problems which are discovered after production. This not only reduces the cost of development but also the time associated with analyzing dynamic response.

The purpose of this thesis was to develop a finite element model of the OH-6A helicopter. The Naval Postgraduate School (NPS) recently acquired two of the McDonnell Douglas aircraft. One aircraft is dedicated to helicopter dynamics research. A

full scale vibration test of this helicopter established the primary natural frequencies and mode shapes between zero and 45 Hz. and compared them to data provided by McDonnell Douglas Helicopter Company (MDHC). The FEM developed in this thesis was created to closely match the results of this test in order to allow further research on a validated model.

Prior to the development of a finite element model, the nature of the vibratory forces acting on the structure must be understood. Chapter III of this thesis discusses harmonically forced vibrations in general and the unique characteristics of helicopter vibrations specifically. There is also a discussion of the mathematical techniques used to solve the vibration problem in multi-DOF systems.

In Chapter IV, the method of finite element modeling is discussed. The development of the simplest of the finite elements, the rod, is used to introduce the concept of discretization and interpolation. The errors associated with the use of finite elements are also discussed.

The remainder of the thesis discusses the OH-6A FEM. MDHC was able to provide a model which they had developed for a similar aircraft. This model was then modified to match the test platform at NPS. The result is a 1774 element finite element model. It is written using the NASTRAN finite element code which is developed and supported by the MacNeal-Schwendler Corporation.

The FEM was modified in three separate steps. First, the structural model was created. The modifications were complicated by the absence of accurate structural design data for the test platform. The FEM was completed using physical measurements of the

helicopter at NPS. In addition, the physical properties of the internal structural components were assumed based on the model provided by MDHC.

Once the structural model was completed, the mass model was then developed. As with the structural model, the creation of the mass model was complicated by the absence of mass data for the newly created empennage structure. For this reason, the mass distribution on the tail was determined using a sensitivity analysis approach in conjunction with measured frequencies. This was simplified by using a single point mass with rotational components. It was strategically placed near the C.G. of the empennage section which was determined by visual inspection. The result was a set of frequencies which closely match test data. Chapter V outlines the procedures taken in the development of both the structural and mass components of the FEM. It also includes a discussion of the design sensitivity approach.

The final step in the development of an accurate model is mode shape correlation. The analytical mode shapes were compared to the test data using the Modal Assurance Criterion (MAC). Prior to comparing the mode shapes, however, the analytical model was reduced to the same size as the test model. This was accomplished using NASTRAN and the built-in static reduction method. The results of the correlation are given in Chapter VI. This is preceded by a discussion of the MAC and the theory of static matrix reduction.

The FEM developed matched the test frequencies quite well. There were some discrepancies in the mode shapes. This can be attributed to the small number of data points taken on the test platform and the large static reduction required in the analytical

model to match it. There was also a noticeable coupling of the landing skids in several modes of the analytical model. This was not noted in a previous test conducted by MDHC [Ref. 2] or the test at NPS. It also could have had an effect on the calculated frequencies. Overall, the updated model provides an accurate tool for calculating dynamic response for the OH-6A helicopter.

II. THE MCDONNELL DOUGLAS OH-6A

A. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OH-6A

The OH-6A is a single engine, four bladed duel piloted helicopter. The aircraft is manufactured by McDonnell Douglas Helicopter Company for the U. S. Army. Its primary function is as an observation platform. It is equipped with a two bladed tail rotor and oleo-damped skid-type landing gear. The empennage is an asymmetrical V-tail [Ref. 1].

The main rotor rotates at 483 RPM. The tail rotor RPM is 3029. The 1/rev (1P) frequency is, therefore, approximately 8 Hz. with the 4P frequency at close to 32 Hz. High frequency excitation from the tail rotor occurs at approximately 50 Hz.

The airframe is of semi-monocoque construction consisting of frames, bulkheads and stringers covered with stressed skin [Ref. 2:p. 10]. The primary structural components are the fuselage, tailboom and empennage which include a primary and secondary structure consisting of all metal, metal and fiberglass, and transparent plastic components [Ref. 3:p. 17]. The principal structural component of the fuselage is the reinforced floor center section. Both the fuselage and tailboom are metal, riveted structures incorporating aluminum alloy frames, stainless steel and titanum bulkheads, canted frames, channel members, beams, structure rings, ribs, stiffeners, doublers, longerons and stingers [Ref. 1].

B. THE OH-6A AT NPS

1. Acquisition

In October, 1995 The Naval Postgraduate School obtained two OH-6A helicopters from the U. S. Army. The acquisition of the helicopters was a first step in launching a rotor craft dynamics program at the school. One of the helicopters is designated as a dynamics laboratory test platform. The other is designated to remain operational. It is part of a proposed flight test center being organized by CAPT Tom Hoivik, USN (Ret.) of the Operations Research department at NPS [Ref. 3:p. 17].

2. Overview of Previous Testing

Initial research on the OH-6A involved performing a full-scale vibration test of the laboratory test platform. This test was performed by LT John Harris at NPS in the spring of 1996 [Ref. 3]. His research involved determining the natural frequencies, mode shapes and damping characteristics of the helicopter at frequencies between zero and 45 Hz.

Once principal modes were identified, they were then compared to data obtained from MDHC.

The six natural frequencies which were detected in the designated frequency range are shown in Table 2.1. These correlated well with the data obtained from McDonnell Douglas. Mode shapes were developed for four of these frequencies. They are reproduced in Appendix A of this thesis.

Table 2.1. Experimental Natural Frequencies. After Ref. [3].

Mode	Frequency (Hz.)		
1 st Lateral	9.32		
1 st Vertical	9.97		
1 st Torsional	15.01		
Aft Vertical	15.61		
2 nd Vertical	21.83		
2 nd Lateral	27.48		
Unnamed	44.84		

C. MOTIVATION FOR MODELING THE OH-6A

The OH-6A is a relatively simple aircraft in comparison with modern military helicopters. It has been operational for 30+ years and there is significant data available concerning its dynamic response. This makes it an ideal aircraft to study. The completion of the full-scale vibration test was a first step in understanding the vibratory response of the helicopter. Development of the FEM further enhances corporate knowledge of the response of the OH-6A and of helicopter dynamics in general.

The completed finite element model is an excellent teaching tool. Once the process required to build a simple FEM is understood, complex FEM can then be developed. Students conducting research into more complex aircraft structures can use this model as an introduction into helicopter dynamics. A thorough understanding of this

validated model will provide the basic knowledge required to develop a FEM of a prototype or concept aircraft.

The acquisition of a helicopter dedicated to vibrational testing coupled with a validated in-house FEM of that helicopter greatly enhances the prestige of the school as a helicopter dynamics research facility. Completion of the full-scale vibration test of the OH-6A was a first step toward establishing a helicopter dynamics program at NPS.

Developing a FEM for the helicopter increases the viability of the program.

III. VIBRATION THEORY

A. HELICOPTER VIBRATIONS

Vibration reduction in helicopters is necessary in order to both reduce fatigue on sensitive avionics and airframe components and to enhance crew and passenger comfort. In order to achieve a reduction in vibration levels, the source of vibrations must be known. With this information, the aircraft is then designed with the principal structural frequencies offset from the driving frequencies. Additionally, damping techniques can be implemented to reduce the amplitude of the airframe response. These can be either traditional passive techniques, using isolation mounts and vibration absorbers, or more advanced active damping techniques, using inputs to the main rotor blades.

Helicopters experience vibrations from a few primary sources. Most vibrations transmitted to the airframe are associated with the main and tail rotors [Ref. 3:p. 10]. These frequencies are normally multiples of the rotor speed. Other sources of vibration are associated with internal machinery such as engines and transmission components. These are normally higher frequency. There are also vibrations associated with random aerodynamic excitations due to wind gusts and changes in flight profile as well as self-induced vibrations.

1. Main Rotor Vibrations

Blade forces and moments are transmitted to the airframe at the rotor hub. Typically, the hub is designed so that lead-lag and flapping bending moments at the blade root are negligible. The result of this is that only the N x rpm, or NP, (N = number of blades) harmonics are transmitted to the airframe from the rotor [Ref. 4:p. 2]. Studies have shown that the NP and 1P frequencies dominate the excitation. All of the other frequencies are filtered out by the rotor system. This assumes that all of the blades are balanced, the helicopter is in steady state flight, and each blade has the same time history as its neighboring blades.

The frequency of greatest concern transmitted from the rotor hub is typically the NP frequency. This is called the blade passage frequency [Ref. 4:p. 19]. The dependance of cockpit vibration levels on airspeed is shown in Figure 3.1. The NP vibrations are a major source of these levels. They are the result of higher harmonic loading on the blades [Ref. 4:p. 2]. These loads are induced by a variety of conditions including: impingement from the rotor wake, blade vortex intrusion, and retreating blade stall and advancing blade compressibility phenomena.

Rotor wake impingement on the blade disk is observed at low airspeeds. At low speeds, the rotor wake remains close to the helicopter. The resulting interference on the rotor causes the higher harmonic loads. The loads fall off as the helicopter increases airspeed and the rotor wash is swept behind the aircraft. This is observed in the 70 - 90 knot region in Figure 3.1.

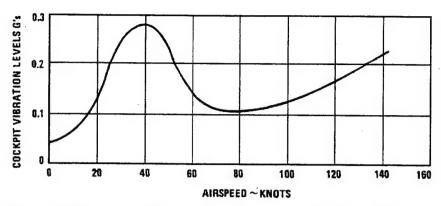


Figure 3.1. Helicopter Vibration vs. Airspeed. From Ref. [4].

Blade vortex interaction refers to the interference caused by the blades passing through the vortices induced by the preceding blade. These effects are normally felt during deceleration and descent maneuvers. The loads created by this effect also manifest themselves as 4P vibrations on the airframe.

The other major cause of 4P vibration occurs at higher airspeeds. As the aircraft increases airspeed above about 80 knots, retreating blade stall and advancing blade compressibility effects begin to appear. The higher harmonic loads induced result in increased 4P vibrations with increase in forward airspeed.

Some blade loading conditions will excite the airframe at a frequency other than 4P. For instance, a 1P vibration indicates a blade track and balance problem. It is normally corrected by adjusting the blade track using either weights on the rotor hub, changes to the pitch control rod length or a combination of both. Also, a 2P vibration is possible. This is felt as a lateral excitation of the airframe and is associated with a blade damper malfunction. The 1P and 2P frequencies can be corrected by maintenance, so they are not design critical as is the 4P vibration.

2. Random Aerodynamic Excitations

Random aerodynamic excitation is the result of the airflow across the airframe. Airflow induced by the main rotor is broadband in nature. It can excite a any given number of natural frequencies of the airframe at certain airspeeds. In order to avoid this possibility, the airflow can be redirected using fairings. [Ref. 4:p. 3]. Wind gusts and airflow conditions induced during abrupt aircraft maneuvers can also cause excitation of the airframe. These conditions are transient in nature and are, therefore, not as critical as the rotor wash condition.

3. Self-Excited Vibrations

Self-excited vibrations result from aerodynamic or mechanical instability. In this situation, the vibratory motion grows exponentially without bound over time. The damping force in this case is negative. Consider the following example [Ref. 5:p. 52]. The equation of motion of a system is modeled as:

$$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = \gamma \dot{x}. \tag{3.1}$$

In this case, the driving force is a function of velocity. The equation can now be rewritten as:

$$m\ddot{x} + (c - \gamma)\dot{x} + kx = 0. \tag{3.2}$$

The system is stable if the damping term (c - γ) is positive. If that term becomes negative then $\zeta = \frac{c - \gamma}{2m\omega} < 0$ and the solution is of the form:

$$x_{(t)} = Ae^{-\zeta \omega t} \sin(\omega_d t + \phi). \tag{3.3}$$

The exponential term grows over time, and the displacement is unbounded. The best known occurrence of this situation in helicopters is the ground resonance condition, a mechanical instability.

B. SINGLE DEGREE OF FREEDOM (SDOF) SYSTEMS

Most structures must be modeled using many - sometimes thousands of - degrees of freedom (DOF). In order to understand how these multiple DOF systems are excited, the SDOF model must first be studied. The solutions obtained from the simple model are then applied to larger models using a systematic modal analysis approach.

1. Free Response

The response of a structure to an initial disturbance without any external forcing function is the free response. As discussed in the previous section, the helicopter is subject to various harmonic loads. Understanding the free response of the structure however, is critical to the understanding of the response when a forcing function is applied (forced response). As will be seen, the solution to the forced response problem is a linear combination of the free response and a particular solution determined by the fractional form of the forcing function.

Consider the undamped SDOF system with mass (m) and spring constant (k). The equation of motion of the system is:

$$m\ddot{x} + kx = 0. ag{3.4}$$

If the response of the system is considered to be harmonic, the solution is well documented and is given as [Ref. 5:p. 11]:

$$x = ae^{\pm \omega jt}. ag{3.5}$$

The amplitude of the response (a) is determined by the initial conditions imposed on the system. Assuming that $x_{(0)} = x_o$, $\dot{x}_{(0)} = \dot{x}_o$ and introducing the Euler's trigonometric identities [Ref. 6:p. 57], the solution becomes:

$$x = x_o \cos(\omega t) + \frac{\dot{x}_o}{\omega} \sin(\omega t). \tag{3.6}$$

2. Forced Response

The response of a structure subject to an external excitation is the forced response.

The external driving forces of particular interest in the study of helicopter vibrations are harmonic and have the form:

$$F(t) = F_o \cos(\Omega t), \tag{3.7}$$

where Ω is the driving frequency. The equation of motion for the forced system is then written:

$$m\ddot{x} + kx = F(t). \tag{3.8}$$

The solution to Equation 3.8 is a linear combination of both the homogeneous (free response) solution (Equation 3.6) and the particular solution. The particular solution is found by assuming a form which is identical to the forcing function:

$$x_p = A_o \cos(\Omega t). \tag{3.9}$$

The response is then found by taking derivatives of Equation 3.9 and substituting into Equation 3.8. This equation can be solved for A_o . Combining the particular and homogeneous solution gives the total response of the harmonically forced structure:

$$A_1 \cos(\omega t) + A_2 \sin(\omega t) + \frac{F_o}{m(\omega^2 - \Omega^2)} \cos(\Omega t). \tag{3.10}$$

The solution is normally written in terms of the frequency ratio $r = \frac{\Omega}{\omega}$ and a normalized amplitude $U_o = \frac{F_o}{k}$. Equation 3.10 then becomes:

$$x = A_1 \cos(\omega t) + A_2 \sin(\omega t) + \frac{U_o}{1 - r^2} \cos(\Omega t).$$
 (3.11)

As the driving frequency approaches the natural frequency of the system, the frequency ratio approaches unity. The assumed particular solution in this case is no longer valid. A different solution of the form $x_p = A_o t \sin(\Omega t)$ is assumed. This leads to the new solution:

$$x = \frac{1}{2}U_o\omega t \sin(\Omega t) + x_o\cos(\omega t) + \frac{\dot{x}_o}{\omega}\sin(\omega t).$$
 (3.12)

As in the free response case, $x_{(0)} = x_o$, $\dot{x}_{(0)} = \dot{x}_o$.

This solution is plotted in Figure 3.2. The amplitude of the response in this case continues to increase over time. This is the resonant condition. It exists when the driving frequency is equal to the natural frequency of the structure. It is the goal in vibration

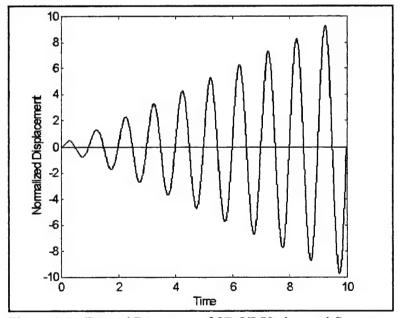


Figure 3.2. Forced Response of SDOF Undamped System

design to avoid resonance during steady state operation. From Equation 3.11, it is seen that when $r \neq 1$, the response amplitude is bounded. Therefore, if the structure is designed with natural frequencies which are offset from the driving frequency, the amplitude of the response will be finite. By understanding the possible forcing frequencies, it then becomes a matter of designing a structure with the normal modes offset.

It is important to note that this discussion does not include any mention of damping force. It is common in vibrational studies to ignore the damping force inherent in the structure. This is a conservative approach. For the case of the under damped structure, the damping force will act to reduce the amplitude of the response during resonant conditions. The damped structure will experience a transient excitation which decays exponentially followed by a steady state response frequency equal to the forcing frequency. A complete discussion on damped response can be found in most engineering vibration texts (e.g., Ref. [5], Chapter One).

C. MODAL ANALYSIS

Basic principles are easily demonstrated using the SDOF system previously discussed. Complex structures, however, are modeled with many - sometimes thousands of - DOF. In order to solve the associated equations, they must first be decoupled in a systematic fashion, then recombined to produce the response.

The modal analysis procedure is used to solve multiple DOF (MDOF) systems.

Consider a MDOF system which can be modeled using an NxN matrix equation:

$$[M]\{\ddot{x}\} + [K]\{x\} = \{F(t)\}. \tag{3.13}$$

The solution to this equation is found by first solving the homogeneous eigenvalue problem. The response is assumed to be of the form $\{x\} = \{\phi\}Ce^{j\omega t}$. This is substituted into Equation 3.13, which is rearranged to give:

$$[M]^{-1}[K] - \omega^{2}[I] \{ \phi \} = \{ 0 \}.$$
 (3.14)

This is the eigenvalue problem. Observe that if the inverse of matrix $[[M]^{-1}[K] - \omega^2[I]]$ existed, Equation 3.14 could be pre-multiplied by that inverse matrix. This would give a trivial solution for $\{\phi\}$. Therefore, the inverse of the matrix must not exist if $\{\phi\}$ is non-zero. For this to be true, the determinant must be equal to zero. Solving for this condition gives a polynomial in ω^2 of order N. These are the natural frequencies of the system.

The mode shapes, $\{\phi\}$, are found by substituting the natural frequencies back into Equation 3.14. Each value of ω will give a unique Nx1 mode shape vector. The mode shapes are then combined to give:

$$[\Phi] = [\{\phi^1\}\{\phi^2\}...\{\phi^N\}].$$
 (3.15)

This is the modal matrix. It can be shown that the modal matrix is orthogonal to both the mass and stiffness matrix such that [Ref. 7]:

$$[\Phi]^{T}[M][\Phi] = [\tilde{M}]; \quad [\Phi]^{T}[K][\Phi] = [\tilde{K}], \tag{3.16}$$

where $\left[ilde{M} \right]$ and $\left[ilde{K} \right]$ are both diagonal matrices.

The original matrix equation can be transformed into a decoupled matrix equation. This is accomplished by assuming a new variable $\{x\} = [\Phi]\{q\}$ and pre-multiplying by $[\Phi]^T$ to give :

$$\left[\tilde{M}\right]\left\{\ddot{q}\right\} + \left[\tilde{K}\right]\left\{q\right\} = \left\{\tilde{F}\right\}. \tag{3.17}$$

In this new equation, the force vector $\{\tilde{F}\} = [\Phi]^T \{F\}$. The matrices $[\tilde{M}]$ and $[\tilde{K}]$ are now uncoupled (diagonal). The differential equation can therefore be written for each mode:

$$M_{ii}\ddot{q}_i + K_{ii}q_i = 0. ag{3.18}$$

The solution to the modal equation is then easily solved using the techniques applied to SDOF systems. The solution for each of the uncoupled equations is:

$$q_i = A_i \cos(\omega_i t) + B_i \sin(\omega_i t) + q_{ip}(t). \tag{3.19}$$

In this case, q_{ip} (t) is the particular equation. It depends on the form of the forcing function. For a harmonically excited system such as a helicopter subject to NP loading, q_{ip} is of the form given in Equation 3.9.

Once the modal equations are solved, the physical response is easily obtained. It is given above by $\{x\} = [\Phi]\{q\}$. It should be noted that in order to solve for the amplitude of the response, initial conditions must be applied. For systems which operate under a variety of conditions, this is not always a desirable approach. For such systems it is common to normalize the amplitudes in some deliberate manner in order to compare the response under various loading parameters.

D. RIGID BODY MODES

Unconstrained systems can have up to six modes in which none of the elastic elements deform. These are called rigid body modes. The rigid body modes occur when a structure is displaced without any deformation of its structural elements. An aircraft in flight is the commonly used example of such a structure.

In MDOF systems the stiffness matrix is related to the strain energy of each of the elements using Lagrange's equations. This is demonstrated in Chapter IV of this thesis.

In most cases the strain energy is positive definite. This means that for any arbitrary displacement from the undisturbed condition a positive strain energy will result. If a system has one or more rigid body modes, no strain energy is produced with those

particular modes. In this case, the matrix [K] becomes semi-positive definite and its determinate is zero [Ref. 6:p. 246].

From the eigenvalue problem in Equation 3.14 it is seen that if the determinant of [K] is zero, there must be at least one solution where the natural frequency (ω) is zero as well. The mode shapes for the rigid body modes are found in the usual way of substituting the frequency back into the equation. When this is done, it is found that $\{\Phi^{RBM}\}\approx\{1\}$.

The number of rigid body modes will be equal to the degeneracies of [K]. For example, if there are six unrestrained DOF, then there will be six modes for which no strain energy will be generated when the structure is deflected. This leads to six rigid body modes.

IV. FINITE ELEMENT MODELING

A. THE SIMPLE ROD ELEMENT

The finite element method is used to model complicated structures. The structure is divided up into many small discrete elements. The response of the structure is then approximated by the motion of the element boundary points (nodes). Due to the systematic nature of the resulting mathematical equations, they are easily implemented on a modern microprocessor.

1. Discretization

In order to illustrate how a finite element model is constructed, consider a simple one dimensional (axial displacement only) rod element shown in Figure 4.1. The rod is length (l) with nodes (1,2) located at either

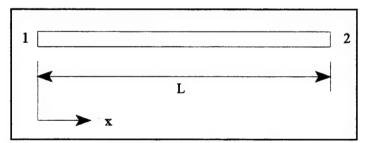


Figure 4.1. The Simple Rod Element

end. The local coordinate system on the rod is chosen with x=0 at node 1 and x=L at node 2.

In order to determine the equations of motion for the rod, the time-independent (static) solution must first be obtained. Consider a small differential element shown in Figure 4.2. The force on the rod is given by $F = \sigma A$, where the unit stress (σ) is given by $\sigma = E \epsilon$. The unit strain (ϵ) is given by:

$$\epsilon = \frac{du_{(x)}}{dx},\tag{4.1}$$

where $u_{(x)}$ is the time-independent displacement of the bar. Substitution then gives:

$$F = EA \frac{du_{(x)}}{dx}. (4.2)$$

The time-independent displacement must satisfy this condition.

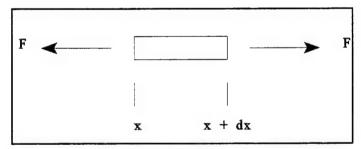


Figure 4.2. Differential Element of Rod

Next, consider that the cross-sectional area of the rod is uniform. Now, taking the derivative of both sides with respect to x gives:

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = 0 = EA \frac{d^2 u_{(x)}}{dx^2}.$$
 (4.3)

Next, integrate to obtain:

$$u_{(x)} = c_1 x + c_2. (4.4)$$

The time-dependant variables c_1 and c_2 are constants with respect to x.

The position of the rod at any given time (t) will be given by the displacement variable $u_{(x,t)}$. The position of the two nodes can then be expressed as:

$$u_1 = u_{(0,t)} = u_{1(t)}$$

$$u_2 = u_{(L,t)} = u_{2(t)}.$$
(4.5)

Substituting into Equation 4.4 gives:

$$u_1 = c_1(0) + c_2 = c_2 (4.6)$$

and

$$u_2 = c_1 L + c_2. (4.7)$$

Solving the simultaneous equations:

$$c_1 = \frac{u_2 - u_1}{L}; \ c_2 = u_1 \tag{4.8}$$

and

$$u_{(x,t)} = \left(1 - \frac{x}{L}\right)u_1 + \left(\frac{x}{L}\right)u_2. \tag{4.9}$$

The coefficients of u_1 and u_2 are called the shape functions because they determine the spacial distribution, or shape, of the solution [Ref. 5:p. 140]. This leads to:

$$u_{(x,t)} = \alpha_{1(x)} u_1 + \alpha_{2(x)} u_2 \tag{4.10}$$

where the shape functions are:

$$\alpha_1 = 1 - \frac{x}{L}; \quad \alpha_2 = \frac{x}{L}. \tag{4.11}$$

The shape functions of any finite element are low order polynomials.

2. Determine Mass and Stiffness Matrices

Lagrange's method is used to obtain the element mass and stiffness matrices. In order to apply the Lagrangian equation, the internal kinetic energy and potential energy of

the rod must first be found. The internal strain (potential) energy (U) of a rod is found using [Ref. 8:p. 210]:

$$U = \int_{V} U_{o} dv; \quad U_{o} = \frac{1}{2E} \sigma_{x}^{2},$$
 (4.12)

where U_o is the strain energy density. Substitution yields:

$$U = \int_{V} \frac{E}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^{2} dv = \frac{AE}{2} \int_{0}^{l} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^{2} dx. \tag{4.13}$$

The kinetic energy (T) is given by [Ref. 5:p. 404]:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 A_{(x)} \rho_{(x)} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \right)^2 dx. \tag{4.14}$$

Now, if both the density and area are constant over the entire length:

$$T = \frac{\gamma}{2} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 \tag{4.15}$$

where the linear mass density (γ) is given by $\gamma = A\rho$. Substituting in Equation 4.10 and taking derivatives yields:

$$T = \frac{\gamma}{l} \int_0^l \left(\alpha_1 \dot{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \dot{u}_2 \right)^2 dx \tag{4.16}$$

and

$$U = \frac{AE}{2} \int_0^l (\alpha_1' u_1 + \alpha_2' u_2)^2. \tag{4.17}$$

Lagrange's equation is defined as [Ref. 5:p. 206]:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}\right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i}; \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
(4.18)

The Lagrangian operator (L) is defined as L = T - V for continuous systems. The coordinates used are generalized coordinates. For this example $q_1 = u_1$ and $q_2 = u_2$. Substituting Equations 4.16 and 4.17 into Lagrange's equation yields:

$$\gamma \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{1} \ddot{u}_{1} + \alpha_{2} \ddot{u}_{2}) \alpha_{1} dx - AE \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{1}' u_{1} + \alpha_{2}' u_{2}) \alpha_{1}' dx = 0
\gamma \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{1} \ddot{u}_{1} + \alpha_{2} \ddot{u}_{2}) \alpha_{2} dx - AE \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{1}' u_{1} + \alpha_{2}' u_{2}) \alpha_{2}' dx = 0.$$
(4.19)

These can be written as a system of equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \gamma \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{1}^{2} dx & \gamma \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} dx \\ \gamma \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} dx & \gamma \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{2}^{2} dx \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \ddot{u}_{1} \\ \ddot{u}_{2} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} AE \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{1}')^{2} dx & AE \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{1}' \alpha_{2}' dx \\ AE \int_{0}^{l} \alpha_{1}' \alpha_{2}' dx & AE \int_{0}^{l} (\alpha_{2}')^{2} dx \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1} \\ u_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4.20)$$

For a system with constant γ , A and E, the mass elements are:

$$M_{ij} = \gamma \int_0^l \alpha_i \alpha_j dx \tag{4.21}$$

and the stiffness elements are:

$$K_{ij} = AE \int_0^l \alpha_i' \alpha_j' dx. \tag{4.22}$$

Solving for the rod gives:

$$M = \frac{\gamma l}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad K = \frac{AE}{l} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (4.23)

The matrices described by Equation 4.23 Are the elemental mass and stiffness matrices associated with a finite element of the bar described by Figure 4.1.

3. Modeling Multi-Element Structures

Finite element models are generally made up of many elements connected together. It is impractical, and unnecessary, to solve Lagrange's equations for these multi-element structures. Instead, the simple elements are used and superimposed upon each other to obtain the mass and stiffness matrices for the entire structure. Boundary conditions are then accounted for in order to obtain the final modal equation.

As an example, consider the cantilever rod shown in Figure 4.3. The rod is modeled using three finite elements with four nodes. Each element is of length $\frac{1}{3}$, so the mass and stiffness matrices become:

$$M = \frac{\gamma I}{18} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad K = \frac{3AE}{I} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{4.24}$$

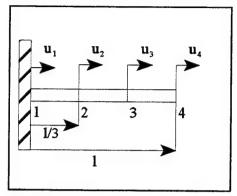


Figure 4.3. Cantilever Bar

Each of the three elements on the beam displaces two local coordinates. Using these coordinates, the equation of motion for the entire bar is written as a system of equations:

$$\frac{\gamma l}{18} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2+2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2+2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_4 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{3AE}{l} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1+1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1+1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
(4.25)

The mass and stiffness matrices in Equation 4.25 are called the global mass and stiffness matrices. They are easily obtained by summing forces. Observe that the adjacent components of each elemental matrix are overlapped to form a diagonally banded global matrix.

The final procedure in creating a FEM is to account for any boundary conditions.

This is done by eliminating the row and column in each matrix which is associated with the

restrained nodes. In Figure 4.3 the rod is clamped at node one. Therefore, row one and column one must be eliminated. The final global matrices become:

$$M = \frac{\gamma l}{18} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad K = \frac{3AE}{l} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.26)

This procedure is used to combine many different elements together. The goal is to form a model which will accurately represent the motion of the actual system being considered. Specifically, for the vibration problem, the global matrices are used to solve the eigenvalue problem discussed in chapter three.

B. ASSOCIATED ERRORS

The process of modeling a continuous structure as a system of finite elements introduces errors when solving the vibration eigenvalue problem. There are several types of errors introduced. They arise during both the discretization of the structure and the interpolation of the element shape. There are also errors in the model stiffness associated with joints. Errors are also introduced when the modal solutions are truncated. While these are not associated with the finite element model itself, they inevitably appear when FEM solutions are truncated to match test data. This is done in order to allow the user to concentrate on those modes which are of primary importance.

During the discretization of the structure, the system is modeled as a collection, or mesh, of many finite elements. The elements are only an approximation of the true shape

of the structure. For instance, curved surfaces are modeled with straight elements. This is necessary in order to keep the equations of motion of the individual elements very simple. The response of the structure is then approximated by modeling the response at each of the nodes. The errors associated with these approximations can be minimized by increasing the number of elements.

Another level of approximation is introduced when estimating the response of the individual elements. The response of a finite element is determined by it's associated shape function. For instance, the shape functions of a rod are shown in Figure 4.4. The shape functions are low order polynomials which are used to approximate the true shape. They satisfy the boundary conditions of the element, and they are integrable up to order of the strain energy [Ref. 6:p.252].

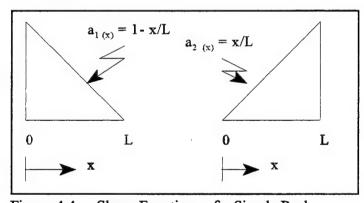


Figure 4.4. Shape Functions of a Simple Rod

In order to model the response of an element exactly under any load, a complex function is required. For instance, the exact analytic solution for the mode shape of the bar is given by [Ref. 5:p. 322]:

$$u = \cos \frac{n\pi x}{l}$$
; $n = 1,2,3,...$ (4.27)

As can be seen from Equation 4.27, the lowest mode (n=1) is closely approximated by the polynomial solution shown in Figure 4.4. In order to solve for any higher modes, however, several elements would have to be used. Each element would show a linear response, but by connecting them together, the actual response would be approximated. From this analogy, it is seen that the more complicated responses (i.e., higher modes) have to be approximated with more elements. Said another way, given the same number of elements, the higher modes show a greater error.

Joints between structural elements are normally modeled with a node. There is not a stiffness associated with the joint. However, in the actual structure, the stiffness at a joint is different then that within the continuous member. The type of joint (e.g., welded, bolted, riveted) determines how the stiffness is affected. Normally, this does have a large impact on the overall response of a large structure. However, for those areas of the model which are considered critical, a point, or lumped, stiffness matrix can be added.

As previously mentioned, truncation errors are not associated with the mass and stiffness matrices obtained from the finite element method. They arise in when the large modal solutions of complicated structures are reduced in order to concentrate on the most important frequencies and mode shapes.

Consider a finite element structure subject to a forcing function,

$$[\mathbf{M}]\{\ddot{q}\} + [\mathbf{K}]\{q\} = [F] \tag{4.28}$$

The mass and stiffness matrices are each [NxN]. There are, therefore, a maximum of N modes which can be determined. If only those modes under a certain frequency are to be considered, the model can be reduced to P modes. Not all of these modal frequencies are accurate, however. In order to determine the accuracy of a particular modal frequency (ω) , the steady state solution to Equation 4.28 is evaluated.

If the structure is forced at frequency (Ω) , the steady state modal solution becomes [Ref. 9]:

$$q_i = \frac{\frac{F_i}{K_i}}{1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{\Omega}\right)^2} \cos(\Omega t). \tag{4.29}$$

Transferring back to physical coordinates:

$${x_{(t)}} = {\Phi} {q_{(t)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{P} {\Phi^{(i)}} q_{i(t)}; P \le N.$$
 (4.30)

From Equation 4.30 it is seen that as more terms are included (P¬N), the solution becomes more accurate.

In order to determine how many terms are required, the contribution from the higher order terms to the total sum must be evaluated. The answer comes from analyzing

Equation 4.29. Of particular importance is the $\left(\frac{\Omega}{\omega_i}\right)^2$ term. If the forcing frequency approaches a particular modal frequency, then that term becomes important. Therefore, in order to obtain an accurate solution, modes up to the value of the forcing frequency must be considered. The normal practice is to include modes up to twice the forcing frequency.

V. THE OH-6A FINITE ELEMENT MODEL

At the outset of this project, it was desired to obtain an older NASTRAN finite element model of the OH-6A which had been produced by The McDonnell Douglas Helicopter Company for NASA [Ref. 2]. This model would have then been modified to match the test platform. After consultation with Dr. Mostafa Toossi at MDHC, it was determined that the OH-6A FEM was not available. However, MDHC was able to provide a somewhat more sophisticated model of a similar aircraft. This baseline model required some extensive modifications to both the nose and empennage in order to match the test platform.

A finite element model consists of both a stiffness model and a mass model.

Together, these create the total dynamic model which can then be used to predict the actual response of the system. Typically, the FEM is developed using blueprints and other design information. However, the data was not available for this project. The absence of accurate structural design and weight distribution data for the OH-6A created some unique challenges in developing the FEM.

A. STRUCTURAL MODEL

In order to gain familiarity with the baseline model, initial research was completed at the MDHC facilities in Mesa, AZ over a two day period. With the help of John Fong, an intern Master's degree student from The California Polytechnic State University at San

Louis Obispo, the nose section was modified to closely match the test platform. In addition, preliminary research was done in order to help determine the internal structural components of the empennage. This work was extremely helpful in developing the OH-6A FEM seen in Figure 5.1.

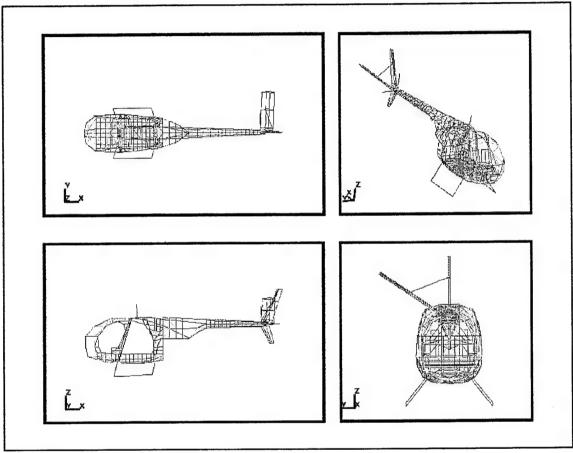


Figure 5.1. OH-6A Finite Element Model

1. Nose Section

The nose section of the baseline model was somewhat more elongated than that of the OH-6A. In order to reshape the nose, aircraft geometry had to be determined. The absence of accurate structural data made this exercise somewhat challenging.

The stations along the fuselage were determined using data contained in the OH-6A maintenance manual [Ref. 1] shown in Figure 5.2. Estimates of the shape were then

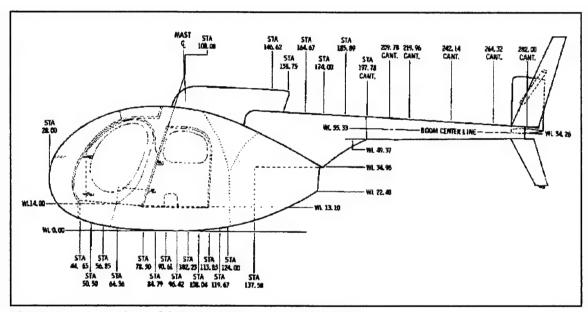


Figure 5.2. Location of OH-6A Stations. From Ref. [1].

made based on the length and visual inspection of the nose. Since the fuselage of the baseline model was similar to the OH-6A, its structure was not modified. In the nose area, grid points 3504 and 3510 were removed along with several elements which are shown in Table 5.1. Additionally, grid points 3506 and 3508 were moved aft to station 28.0. This give the model a rounder nose typical of the OH-6A.

Element Type	Elements Removed
CBAR	20507 - 20510
CQUAD4	4060444107, 4060544107, 4060644107,
	4060744107, 4060844107, 4060944107,
CTRIA3	3017644107, 3017844107, 3018044107,
	3018244107

Table 5.1. Removed FEM Nose Elements

2. Empennage Section

Tail modifications were much more extensive than the other sections of the aircraft. In order to accurately model the test platform, the entire empennage had to be replaced. In order to perform the necessary revisions without structural data the external geometry and the internal structural components had to be determined.

The empennage is shown in Figure 5.3. The first step in developing the model was to accurately determine external geometry. The OH-6A empennage consists of three airfoils connected to the end of the tailboom. Two of these, the vertical stabilizers, are vertically mounted to the top and bottom of the tailboom respectfully. The horizontal stabilizer is mounted on the starboard side of the tailboom at an angle of approximately 40 degrees off vertical.

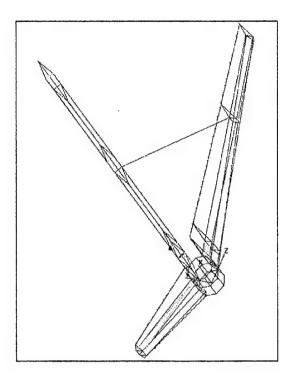


Figure 5.3. OH-6A Empennage

Measurements were taken of the test platform at NPS. The vertical and horizontal stabilizers were measured with reference to the tailboom. Cross-sectional depth was measured at the endpoints and determined by inspection to be uniform along the length of each of the stabilizers. The horizontal stabilizer was determined to be of constant cross-sectional area., while the vertical stabilizers are tapered toward the tips.

The FEM was modified using obtained measurements. All of the previous empennage elements were removed. These are given in Table 5.2 along with the modified element identification numbers. The corrected grid points and structural elements are given in Appendix E as NASTRAN formatted text. A new coordinate system was defined

as well. It is oriented orthogonally on grid point 27300 which is in the center of the tailboom directly below the connection point of the upper vertical stabilizer.

	Upper Vertical Stab.	Horizontal Stab.
Old Grid Points	31002 - 31088	32002 - 32108
New Grid Points	31018 - 31088	32002 - 32048

Table 5.2. Modified FEM Element Identification Numbers

Connection points for each of the stabilizers are modeled as rigid elements. Two elements are used at the base of each airfoil. The airfoil connection grid points and the corresponding connection points on the tailboom are given in Table 5.3 along with the rigid element identification numbers. Note that rigid elements 50003 to 50010 in the original model were deleted.

	Upper Vertical Stab		Lower Vertical Stab		Horizontal Stab	
Empennage G.P.	31008	31025	31073	31066	32002	32005
Tailboom G.P	27302	28002	28010	27310	27306	28006
Rigid Element ID.	50003	50004	50005	50006	50007	50008

Table 5.3. Empennage Connection Points

A first attempt was made to connect the lower vertical stabilizer at a single point on the tailboom. This approach matches the physical configuration. After calculating the normal modes of this model, however, it was determined that the first lateral, vertical and

Inspection of the mode shapes revealed that the lower stabilizer was vibrating independently of the rest of the empennage. This is not typical of the actual aircraft. The addition of another rigid element connection brought the frequencies and mode shapes closer to the test results.

Determination of the internal geometry was accomplished by measuring the location of rivet lines. Using this data, the location of the internal structural components was determined. Each of the airfoils is comprised of spars with spar caps running longitudinally with respect to the base. They are intersected by ribs which are oriented parallel to the base. Each end is comprised of a sheet metal cap reinforced with a rib. The top vertical and horizontal stabilizer are connected externally with a hollow sheet metal bar. The element identification numbers which were deleted from the original model as well as the new element numbers are given in Table 5.4.

Element	Original ID	New ID
CROD	10403 - 10407	10403 - 10450
CSHEAR	40483 - 40597	40483 - 40546
CBAR	20403 - 20478	20403 - 20469
CTRIA3	30124 - 30159	30124 - 30152
CQUAD4	40557	None

Table 5.4. FEM Element Identification Numbers

3. Structural Elements

While developing the FEM, assumptions had to be made concerning the types of internal elements to be used. Upon receiving the baseline model, the first operation performed was to calculate the natural frequencies and mode shapes. The frequencies from this model were close to that of the test platform. It was determined from this data and consultation with MDHC engineers that the material properties of the NPS test vehicle could be closely approximated using the material properties in the baseline model.

There were four different types of finite elements used in the construction of the tail model. These are summarized in Table 5.5. The spars were modeled using rod elements. Two sets of two longitudinal spars run the length of each airfoil. Each set has elements running along the top and bottom of the stabilizer. Between them is a flange or

Table 5.5. OH-6A Structural Components. After Ref. [2].

Component	Element
Spar	Rod Element
Skin	Shear Panel Element
Spar Cap	Shear Panel Element
Sheet Metal Rib	Bar Element
Connection	Rigid Element

spar cap. This is represented with a shear panel. The ribs are modeled using bar elements.

Each end cap is modeled using shear panels to represent sheet metal. They are reinforced

with bar elements. Aircraft skin is modeled with shear elements covering the entire structure. As mentioned previously, the connections to the tailboom are represented with rigid elements.

All of the elements were modeled using the MAT1 card number one in the NASTRAN model. This corresponds to aluminum with a modules of elasticity of 10.6 x 10⁶ psi., Poisson's ratio of 0.33 and unit weight of 0.120 lb/in³. The elements were given various dimensions which were based on data obtained from the original FEM. These element properties as well as the corresponding property identification numbers are given in Table 5.6.

a. Rod Element

The simplest element to define is the rod element. It is shown if Figure 5.4. Rod elements carry axial loads only. The rod is assumed to be cylindrical in shape for mathematical calculations. However, the actual elements modeled do not necessarily have to be cylindrical. Rods are connected at the two end points only. They may be used to model an element of variable cross section. To do that, however, several rods must be used, each with a different area. Since the rod elements do not carry any bending loads, they are used in conjunction with shear panels in the tail section. Shear panels placed between two rods accurately model the flanged spars in each airfoil.

Table 5.6. FEM Material Properties

Vertical Stabilizers								
	PROD		PSHEAR		PSHELL		PBAR	
	PID	Diam.	PID	Thick	PID	Thick	PID	Width
Fwd Spar	11030	0.030	14040	0.040				
	11036	0.036	14048	0.048				
	11042	0.042	14055	0.055				
Aft Spar	11030	0.030	14040	0.040	13071	0.071		
	11044	0.044	14058	0.058				
·	11057	0.057						
Ribs	11298	0.298					12014	0.014
End Caps			14025	0.025	13025	0.025	12017	0.017
			Horizont	al Stabili	zer			
Spars	11030	0.030	14040	0.040				
End Caps	12067	0.067						
	12177	0.177						
Connecting Bar							12122	0.122

b. Bar Element

A bar element defines a simple beam. These elements carry bending as well as axial loads. The cross section of the bar is square with uniform area as seen in Figure 5.5. As with the rod, the material properties of each element are invariant throughout the

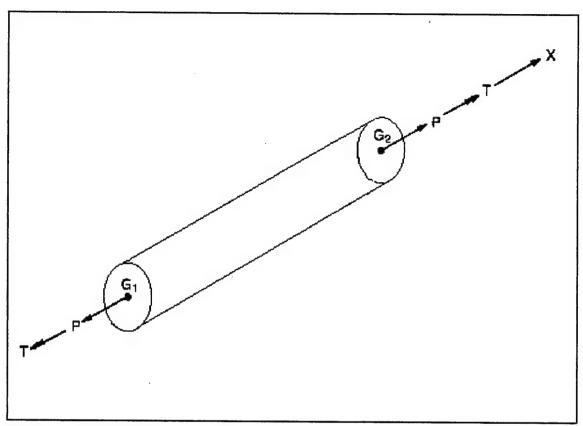


Figure 5.4. Rod Element. From Ref. [10].

entire length. In order to model a variable cross-section area, several bars connected together must be used. An alternate approach is to use a more sophisticated beam element; however, they are not used in this model. Bar elements are oriented using an orientation vector as shown in Figure 5.5. The vector is defined from node GA to grid point GO. The bar elements in this model are used to represent sheet metal ribs internal to each airfoil.

c. Shear Panel Element

Shear panel elements define a thin shell. The shell is a two dimensional solid with small thickness as compared to the length and width [Ref. 10:p. 175]. The shape of the shear panel is defined by the location of its four grid points as shown in Figure 5.6. It is noted that interior angles must be less than 180 degrees. Also, element thickness is defined as constant throughout the entire element.

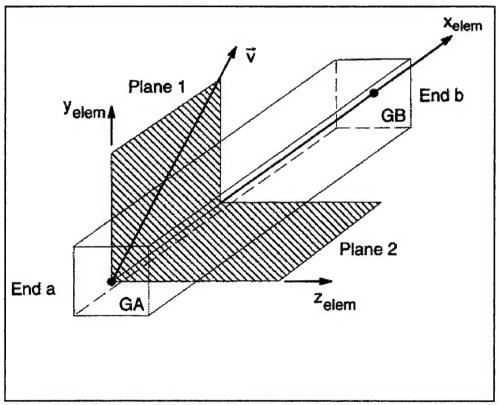


Figure 5.5. Bar Element. From Ref. [10].

Shear panels carry both shear and axial loads. They are used to model the aircraft skin which is a uniform thickness over the entire airfoil. As mentioned previously, they are also used in conjunction with rod elements to model spar caps.

d. Rigid Elements

A rigid element defines a rigid beam with six degrees of freedom at each end. The beam is massless with infinite stiffness. The degrees of freedom are defined as being either dependant or independent at each node. The rigid bar does not deform. It transfers the loads applied at the independent node to the dependant node in each DOF. Rigid elements are used at the base of each of the stabilizers. All six of the independent DOF are connected to the tailboom for each of the elements. The dependant DOF are at the nodes connected to the stabilizers.

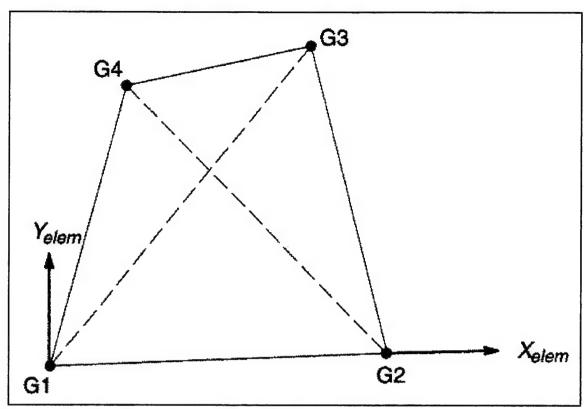


Figure 5.6. Shear Panel Element. From Ref. [10].

B. MASS MODEL

In addition to the structural model, the typical FEM includes a mass model as well. The mass model of the OH-6A includes non-structural mass and structural mass. The non-structural mass includes the fuel crew and cargo weights. In this model, these were set to match the test configuration [Ref. 3]. This is shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7. OH-6A NPS Vibration Test Configuration. After Ref. [3].

Item	Weight (lbs.)	Fuselage Station
Ship as Weighed	1299	105.1
Crew	0	
Fuel	12	102.23
Additional Ballast	80	105.1
Total/C.G Station	1391	105.1

Structural masses are classified into two categories. Primary structural masses are determined from the mass densities of each of the elements of the model. Secondary structural masses are items such as equipment and useful load items [Ref. 2:p. 36]. These items are things such as rotor blades, engines, transmission components, etc. They are normally determined using blueprints and the associated weight report. The masses can be placed on the structure manually or by using an automated mass distribution program.

Without detailed structural data it was not possible to determine the secondary masses and their location on the empennage. In order to complete the dynamic model, a design sensitivity approach was taken. Using this method, the response of the structure to small changes in mass is calculated. Using the obtained sensitivity information, the change in mass required to produce the desired response is then determined.

In order to use the design sensitivity approach, the response of the system without mass must first be determined. This was done for the OH-6A model after the completion

of the structural model. The frequencies for each of the modes of interest is noted in Table 5.8.

The standard approach using design sensitivities is to place lumped masses at several points on the structure in order to obtain the total response. For this model, however, it was not necessary. As seen in Table 5.8, the model is very accurate even prior to the addition of any mass. With this information, it was determined that a single mass located near the center of mass of the empennage section would be sufficient. The mass was given both translational and rotational components. This corrected for the spacial distribution of the actual mass of the system.

Design sensitivities are determined from placing small masses at selected points of the structure and measuring the response. Consider the small component of mass, δM_j , placed at the selected point. The natural frequencies of the structure with this mass applied are given by $\{\omega\}_{\delta}$. If the natural frequencies of the model prior to the addition of the small mass are given by $\{\omega\}_{\delta}$, then the sensitivity matrix is defined by:

$$S_{i,j} = \frac{(\omega_i)_a^2 - (\omega_i)_b^2}{\delta M_i}.$$
 (5.1)

This gives the sensitivity of the frequency components to a change in mass.

Table 5.8. Natural Frequencies Prior to Mass Model

Mode	Test Frequency (Hz)	Base Anal. Freq. (Hz)
1st Lateral	9.32	9.01
1st Vertical	9.97	9.01
1st Torsional	15.01	15.42
Aft Vertical	15.61	15.84
2 nd Vertical	21.83	19.86
2 nd Lateral	27.48	26.80

The natural frequencies of the test platform are then compared to the base analysis frequencies:

$$\Delta\omega_i^2 = (\omega_i)_a^2 - (\omega_i)_{T'}^2 \tag{5.2}$$

where $(\omega_i)_T$ are the test frequencies of interest. In order to solve for the mass, the sensitivity matrix is then applied to the frequencies. This is given as:

$$\{\Delta\omega^2\} = [S]\{\Delta M\}. \tag{5.3}$$

This equation can be solved to determine the change in mass, $\{\Delta M\}$, required to produce the desired change in frequency. It should be noted that the above calculations were

completed using units of force not mass. The force components are entered into NASTRAN which then converts them to mass.

After application of the sensitivity matrix, the determined mass was applied to the empennage. The mass matrix is shown in Table 5.9. Table 5.10 gives the model mass summary.

Table 5.9. Tail Force Components

Force Component	Magnitude
M_x	38.0 lb.
$M_{\rm y}$	38.0 lb.
M _z	38.0 lb.
I_{xx}	100.0 inlb.
I _{yy}	524.0 inlb.
I _{zz}	600.0 inlb.

Table 5.10. OH-6A FEM Mass Summary

Component	Weight (lbs.)	Fuselage Station
Structural Weight	1375.55	114.83
Fuel	12	102.23
Crew	0	
Total Weight/C.G Location	1387.55	114.83

The first calculation using this method did not produce favorable results. A determination was made that the original point of application was not satisfactory, and a

new location was chosen. This position proved to be ideal. It is located on the bottom of the horizontal stabilizer just outboard of the tailboom at grid point 32022. It can be seen as a triangular mark in Figure 5.3. The NASTRAN force components used in the FEM are included at the end of Appendix E.

VI. COMPARISON OF RESULTS

Verification of a finite element model requires comparison of the analytical natural frequencies and mode shapes with an experimental vibration test. This finite model, however, was created using the previously generated test frequencies. By definition, therefore, they are closely correlated after completion of the completion of the mass modeling as shown in Table 6.1. The only exercise which remains is to compare the mode

Table 6.1. Natural Frequencies of Dynamic OH-6A FEM.

Mode	Test Frequency (Hz)	Analysis Freq. (Hz)	% Error
1st Lateral	9.32	9.32	0.0%
1st Vertical	9.97	9.99	0.2%
1st Torsional	15.01	15.40	2.6%
Aft Vertical	15.61	15.82	1.3%
2 nd Vertical	21.83	19.84	9.1%
2 nd Lateral	27.48	26.79	2.5%

shapes. This will determine if the modes are matched.

A. MODAL ASSURANCE CRITERION

There are several methods which can be used to compare experimental and analytical mode shapes. These include both graphical as well as mathematical techniques.

For this thesis, a mathematical approach called Modal Assurance Criterion (MAC) was used. This and other mathematical modal parameters are based on graphical techniques. Therefore, before discussing the mathematical approach, some insight into the graphical method is necessary.

Graphical comparison of mode shapes is relatively straight forward. The simplest procedure is to place one mode shape on top of the other and visually compare deviation. Although this method is uncomplicated to perform, it has the disadvantage that the deviations are somewhat difficult to interpret [Ref. 11:p. 222]. A more sophisticated approach is to make a plot of the experimental modal deviation vs. the analytical deviation. This plot is shown in Figure 6.1.

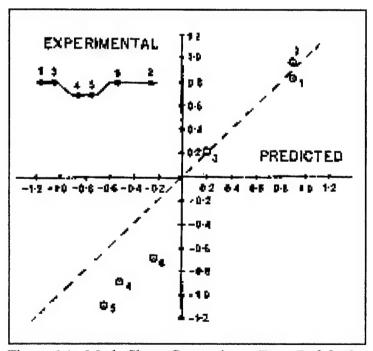


Figure 6.1. Mode Shape Comparison. From Ref. [11].

The predicted response is plotted along the abscissa with the experimental response on the ordinate. The resulting points should be disbursed about a 45 degree line as shown. It should be noted at this point that two assumptions are made when plotting these points:

- 1. Mode shapes must be identically normalized
- 2. Mode shapes must be plotted at identical points on the structure.

Deviations from the straight line can then be interpreted. For instance, a systematic deviation which produces a straight line offset from the origin may indicate a problem with the material properties of the model. A deviation which produces a straight line other than 45 degrees through the origin may indicate a problem with the experimental observations, perhaps an incorrect scaling of the FRF plots [Ref. 11:p. 223].

Mathematical calculations generally produce statistical properties of the deviation of the graphical solution from an ideal 45 degrees. The benefit of the MAC parameter is that it produces a least squares deviation from a straight line correlation. This allows the user to determine the quality of the fit of the analytical mode shape. This is not available with other approaches [Ref. 11:p.225].

In this thesis there are two mode shape matrices that are to be compared, the experimentally derived mode shape $[\Phi^x]$ and the analytically produced mode shape, $[\Phi^a]$. The MAC matrix is defined as:

$$MAC = \frac{([\Phi^x]^T [\Phi^a])^2}{([\Phi^x]^T [\Phi^x])([\Phi^a]^T [\Phi^a])}.$$
(6.1)

The MAC matrix is square with the rows representing the experimental modes and the columns representing the analytical modes. If any two modes correlate exactly, the MAC will be unity for that position in the matrix. If there is no correlation, the MAC will be zero. For example, two perfectly correlated [3x3] mode shapes will give:

$$MAC = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{6.2}$$

Also, if the two modes differ only by a scalar, the scalars will divide out in Equation 6.1, and the MAC will be the same. Therefore, the MAC is independent of the normalizing constant of each particular mode shape.

In practice, the correlation won't be exactly unity or zero. It is generally accepted that a MAC greater than 0.9 indicates a correlated mode. A MAC less than 0.05 indicates uncorrelated data [Ref. 11:p. 226].

B. MATRIX REDUCTION

As indicated in the previous section, in order to perform mode shape comparison, the two mode shapes must be determined from identical points on the structure. In most

cases, however, the experimental data is determined from fewer points than the analytical data. In this thesis the test set consisted of between 17 and 20 points, depending on the mode. The analysis set, however, contained over 3000 nodes. In order to compare the two shapes, the analysis set must be reduced.

The reduction of the analysis response matrix is accomplished using a transformation matrix [T]. This is applied to the full element model, resulting in a test analysis model (TAM). The TAM matches the nodes in the experimental set [Ref. 12:p. 270]. It can then be solved for the modes of interest and compared to the experimental data set using the techniques described in the previous section.

The simplest reduction is a static reduction of the model. This is accomplished by first determining which DOF are to be kept in the TAM. Assuming an omitted set (o) and a retained set (a), the full model can be partitioned as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_{aa} & M_{ao} \\ M_{oa} & M_{oo} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \ddot{x}_a \\ \ddot{x}_o \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} K_{aa} & K_{ao} \\ K_{oa} & K_{oo} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_a \\ x_o \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}.$$
 (6.3)

If an [N x a] transformation matrix is assumed, then:

Equation 6.4, 6.12 may then be substituted into Equation 6.3. It is then pre-multiplied by $[T]^T$ to give:

Equation 6.4 may then be substituted into Equation 6.3. It is then pre-multiplied by [T]^T to give:

$$\left[\tilde{M}\right]\left\{\ddot{x}_{a}\right\}+\left[\tilde{K}\right]\left\{x_{a}\right\}=0,\tag{6.5}$$

with $[\tilde{M}] = [T]^T[M][T]$ and $[\tilde{K}] = [T]^T[K][T]$. The associated eigenvalue problem may then be solved to produce the TAM frequencies and mode shapes

$$\left[\tilde{K}\right]\{\tilde{\Psi}\}^{i} = \omega_{i}^{2}\left[\tilde{M}\right]\{\tilde{\Psi}\}^{i}. \tag{6.6}$$

This produces the [a x a] matrix of mode shapes $\left[\tilde{\Psi}\right]$ which correlates to the reduced set of natural frequencies.

In order to determine the transformation matrix [T], the full partitioned model is again considered. If a harmonic solution to Equation 6.3 is considered, the equation of motion at a particular frequency (Ω) may be written as:

$$\left(\begin{bmatrix} k_{aa} & k_{ao} \\ k_{oa} & k_{oo} \end{bmatrix} - \Omega^2 \begin{bmatrix} m_{aa} & m_{ao} \\ m_{oa} & m_{oo} \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{Bmatrix} x_a \\ x_0 \end{Bmatrix} = 0.$$
(6.7)

The static transformation matrix is found assuming zero frequency. The omitted set can then be written as:

$${x_o} = [k_{oo}^{-1}][k_{oa}] {x_a}.$$
 (6.8)

Substituting Equation 6.8 into Equation 6.4 gives:

$$\begin{cases}
 \{x_a\} \\
 -[k_{oo}]^{-1}[k_{oa}]\{x_a\}
\end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} [I] \\
 -[k_{oo}]^{-1}[k_{oa}]
\end{cases} \{x_a\} = [T]\{x_a\}.$$
(6.9)

It follows, then, from Equation 6.9 that the static transformation matrix is:

$$[T] = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ -[k_{oo}]^{-1}[k_{oa}] \end{bmatrix}$$
 (6.10)

Static reduction is the simplest method of reducing the analysis model to obtain a TAM of equivalent size to the experimental model. There are other methods. Gordis gives a discussion on the Improved Reduction System TAM which provides increased accuracy over the static TAM by including inertia forces [Ref. 12]. The reduced model for this thesis was generated by NASTRAN using the SET command. NASTRAN automatically calculates the TAM using the static reduction method.

C. COMPARISON PROCEDURES

In order to use data sets in NASTRAN, the experimental data points must be mapped to specific grid points on the model. In his shake test of the OH-6A, Harris positioned the accelerometers on known aircraft stations [Ref. 3:p.34]. Plots of the resulting mode shapes are reproduced in Appendix A. It must be noted, however, that separate measurement points were used for the vertical, lateral and torsional mode shape

measurements. Therefore, three separate grid point data sets were determined from the model for calculations in NASTRAN.

The mode shape output from NASTRAN can be sent to a text file called Output Four (.op4). It was desired for this project to use MATLAB to manipulate the mode shapes. In order to accomplish this, a short MATLAB function called *shapes.m* was created which reads the contents of the NASTRAN generated file and puts it in MATLAB format. This code is contained in Appendix B.

Once the mode shape matrix is obtained, the desired mode shape vectors must be extracted. The output from the MATLAB *shapes* function is in the form:

$$\Phi = \left[\left\{ \Phi_1 \right\} \left\{ \Phi_2 \right\} \left\{ \Phi_3 \right\} \cdots \right]. \tag{6.11}$$

Each mode shape vector in N DOF, where N = (6) (#grid points). Each grid point has six DOF listed in order from the top of the vector as x, y, z, θ_1 , θ_3 , θ_3 . In order to obtain only the desired mode shape, first the entire mode shape vector must be extracted from the Φ matrix. Then, all the rows not desired must be removed. For example, for the lateral mode shapes only rows 2, 8, 14, ... are kept. The mode shapes extracted for each of the modes is given in MATLAB format in Appendix C.

A second MATLAB program was used to MAC the mode shapes together. This code was provided by Professor Josh Gordis and is given in Appendix D. The results of the MAC are shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. MAC Parameters

Mode	MAC
1 st Lateral	0.704
1 st Vertical	0.921
1st Torsional	0.633
Aft Vertical	N/A
2 nd Vertical	0.903
2 nd Lateral	0.544

D. MODE SHAPES

1. Lateral Modes

Correlations for the lateral modes were not as accurate as for the vertical modes. The first lateral mode is somewhat correlated. The mode shape is shown in Figure 6.2. It demonstrates a somewhat steeper curvature in the tailboom than the experimental mode shape. Harris found the nodes at stations 80 and 214. In the FEM, the nodes appear at approximately stations 100 and 225. The mode shape is very similar to a cantilever beam first bending mode. This is expected due to the relative flexibility of the tailboom relative to the fuselage.

The second lateral mode shape is seen in Figure 6.3. There appears to be significant error associated with this mode. The general shape of the modes are similar, but the analytical mode is shifted forward relative to the experimental mode shape. Also, the relative deflection appears to be smaller. The mode shape also shows some degree of

Figure 6.2. First Lateral Mode Shape at 9.32 Hz. × 1.28 1.20 1.11 1.03 .941 1.03 .941 .856 .771 .686 .601 .517 .432 .347 .432 .347 .262 .347 1.28 1.20 1.11 1.03 .941 .856 .771 .686 .686 1.28 1.20 1.11 1.03 .941 .856 .771 .686 .686

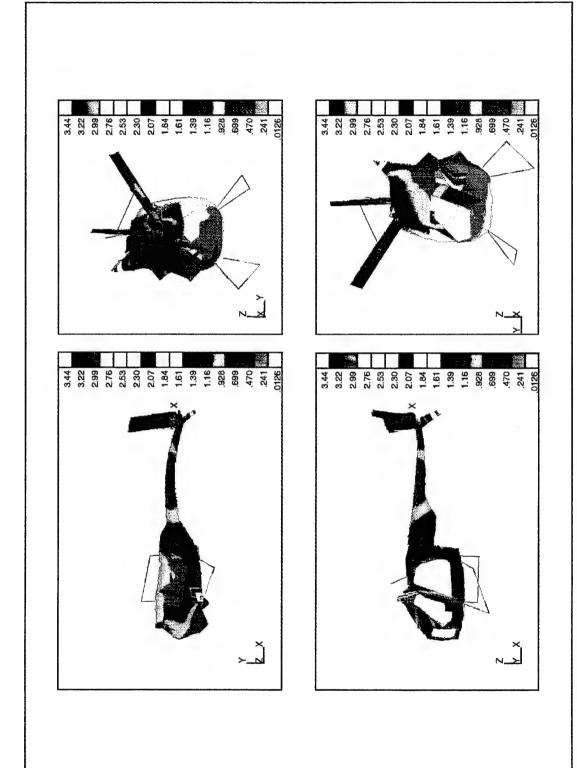


Figure 6.3. Second Lateral Mode Shape at 26.79 Hz.

coupling with the landing skids. Additionally, there are several points on the fuselage which appear to be excited at this frequency. It is possible that these components in the model are causing errors in the mode shape as well as the frequency solution.

2. Vertical Modes

The vertical mode shapes correlate very well with the experimental data. It is interesting to note that there is a degree of correlation between the first lateral and vertical mode shapes. The first vertical mode shape is seen in Figure 6.4. It appears to bend in much the same way as the lateral mode. This is typical of a cantilever beam. The bending mode shapes of a symmetrical beam (e.g., a circular tailboom) are ideally identical in both planes.

It is somewhat unexpected that the mode shapes of the second vertical modes correlate so well. The natural frequencies of the second vertical modes have the greatest discrepancy of all the modes. This mode shape, however, is simpler than the lateral mode as seen in Figure 6.5. It has more of a first mode shape with only two nodes. The less complicated shape makes it easier to model using a small number of points.

The aft vertical mode is shown in Figure 6.6. There was no data available for the experimental counterpart to this mode shape. Therefore, it does not have a MAC. The MDHC report on the OH-6A shake test [Ref. 2:p. 66] classifies this as an aft fuselage bending mode. The model mode shape generated for this report appears to display aft fuselage bending, but it is also coupled with a landing skid flapping mode.

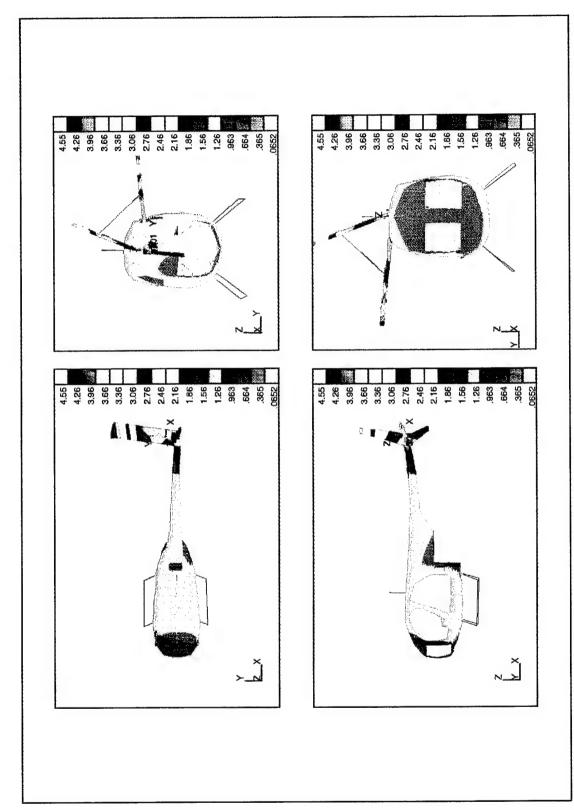


Figure 6.4. First Vertical Mode Shape at 9.99 Hz.

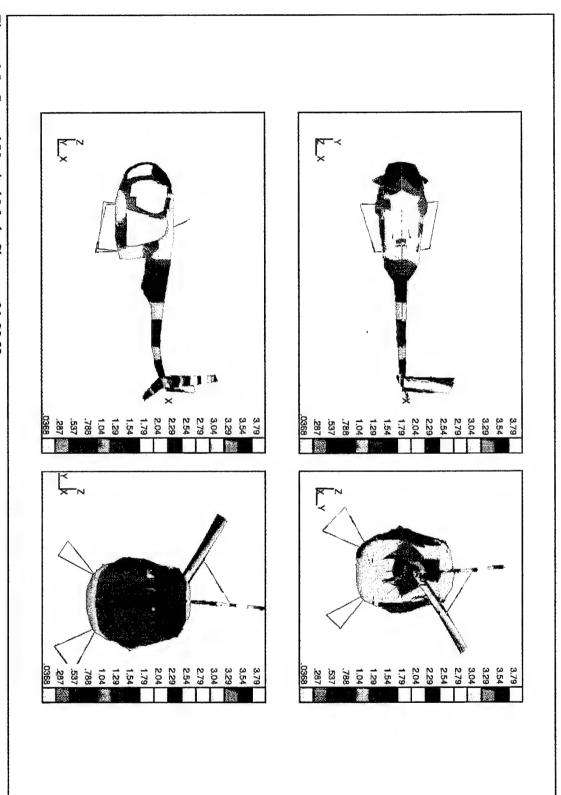


Figure 6.5. Second Vertical Mode Shape at 21.83 Hz.

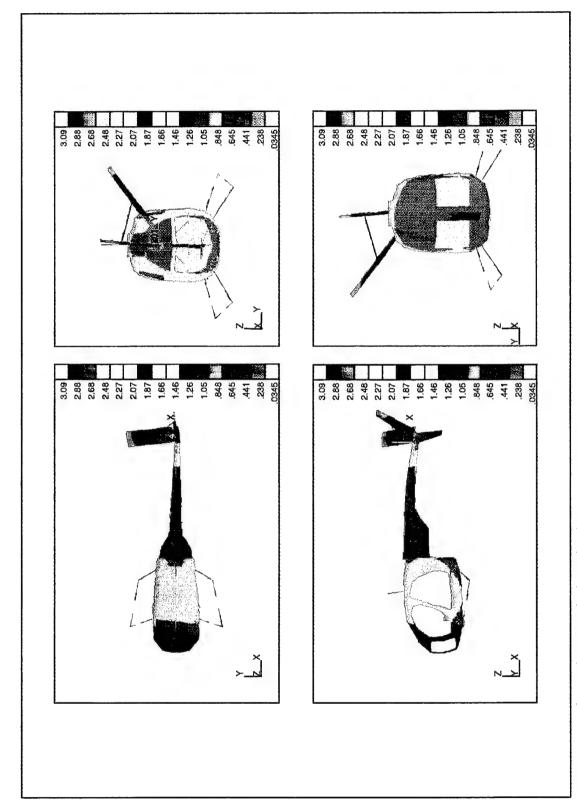


Figure 6.6. Aft Fuselage Vertical Mode Shape at 15.82 Hz.

3. Torsional Mode

The torsional mode shapes did not correlate well. Harris provided data for this mode, but there is no mode shape plot available from the experimental data. However, a visual inspection of Figure 6.7 shows similar deformation to the mode shape calculated by MDHC [Ref. 2:p. 61]. There were significant sources of error in correlating these plots. Only eight data points were used to correlate data. There were a total of 12 points in the test, but only eight were used because the others were not represented as grid points on the model. Also, only vertical deflections were measured. To get a more accurate measure of torsion, the lateral displacement of each point should also be measured. Lastly, there appears to be a significant amount of coupling with the landing skids in the model. Interference with a mode of the skids could change the torsional mode shape.

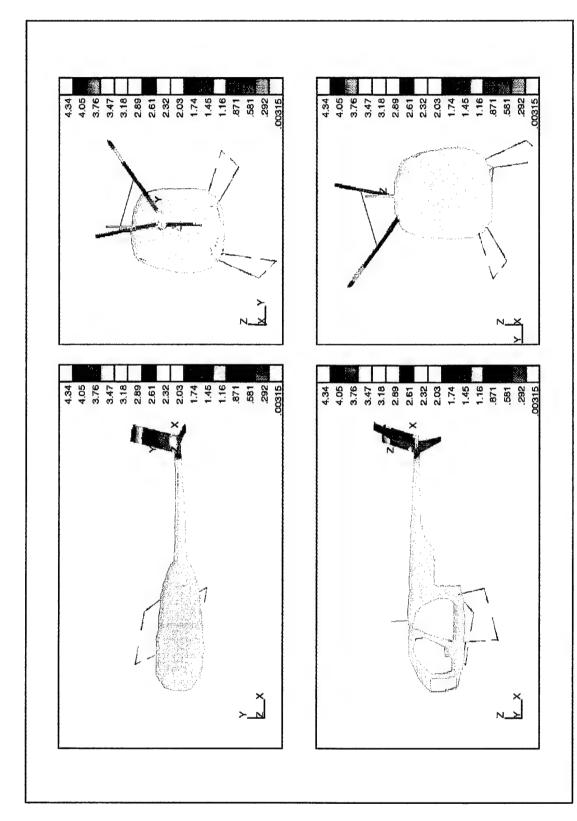


Figure 6.7. First Torsional Mode Shape at 15.40 Hz.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The development of a finite element model is essential in the study of vibration response of complex structures such as modern military helicopters. Reduction of the vibration levels of helicopters is of significant concern as aircraft become more complex and vibration sensitive high-tech avionics become more critical to completion of the aircraft's primary mission.

The relative simplicity of the OH-6A airframe coupled with well documented response characteristics make this an ideal aircraft to study. A full-scale vibration test of the helicopter at NPS established the natural frequencies and mode shapes between 0 and 45 Hz. This thesis continues with that research and develops a FEM which is closely correlated to the experimental data. The increased understanding of OH-6A dynamic characteristics which this research creates further increases the capabilities of the school to conduct helicopter dynamics research. Furthermore, it enhances the prestige of NPS as a rotorcraft research facility.

Helicopters experience vibrations from a few primary sources. Vibrations transmitted through the main and tail rotors are the largest source. They occur primarily at 1P and NP frequencies. Higher frequency vibrations are a concern as well. They are associated with internal machinery such as engines and transmission components.

Additionally, random aerodynamic excitations from wind and rotor wash impingement on the fuselage can also have an effect.

When developing a FEM, it is necessary to realize that a finite element model is not an exact representation of the actual structure. There are errors associated with the discretization and interpolation of the structure. This error can be minimized by including a large number of very small elements in the FEM. The errors for the higher frequency modes will always be greater than the lower modes due to their complex mode shapes. It is, therefore, the goal of the engineer to develop a model which is accurate below a certain frequency level of interest.

A typical FEM consists of both a stiffness model and a mass model. The development of both of these components for this project was complicated by the lack of accurate structural design data for the helicopter. The structural components were created using external measurements of the test platform at NPS. The nose and empennage section were created using this method. The remainder of the aircraft is based on a FEM of a similar aircraft which was provided by McDonnell Douglas. The mass model was created using a point mass with rotational components placed near the C.G. of the empennage. The mass components were calculated using a design sensitivity approach.

Model frequencies correlated very closely to the test frequencies, especially in the lower frequency modes. The mode shapes did not correlate as well. Mode shapes were compared using the modal assurance criterion. Prior to performing the MAC, analytical mode shapes were reduced to the same size as the test modes using the NASTRAN built-

in static reduction method. The drastic reduction in the number of DOF introduced a great deal of error in the resulting test analysis model. It was more pronounced in the lateral modes than in the vertical. The torsional mode shape was the least correlated of them all. However, the general shape of all modes was similar by visual inspection. This leads to the conclusion that greater detail in the experimental mode shapes may give better correlation results.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The finite element model created for this project correlates well with the experimental data. It is a useful tool for further research in helicopter dynamics. It can be used to provide a basic knowledge of the process required to develop complex finite element models. There are, however, still some improvements which can be made which will increase its accuracy.

1. Improvements in the Experimental Data

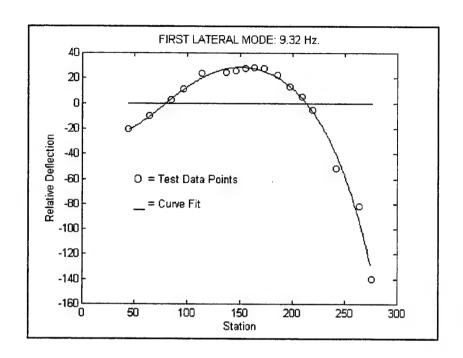
Experimental mode shapes were developed using between 17 and 19 data points. The analytical model contains 4398 DOF. The static reduction creates some rather large errors when reducing by such a significant amount. Taking measurements at additional data points would give more reliable experimental mode shapes. Additionally, torsional data was determined using only vertical displacement. Putting additional accelerometers on the tail to obtain lateral-vertical coupling by simultaneously measuring vertical-lateral movement would greatly enhance the accuracy of the test.

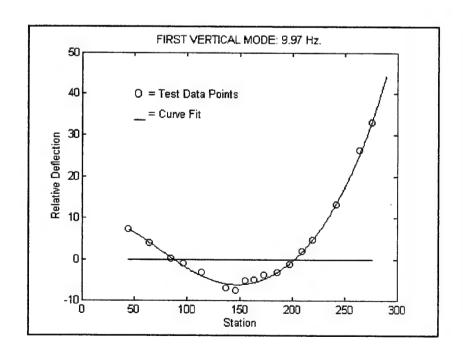
2. Improvements in the FEM

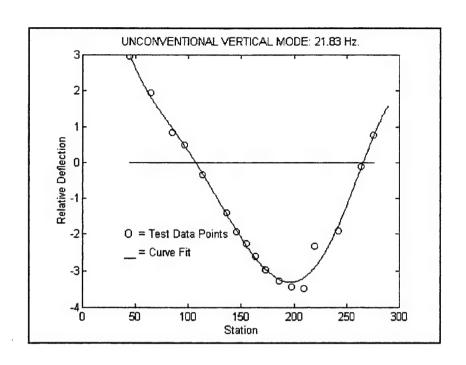
One area of potential error which was not addressed in this thesis is the landing skids. Landing skids on helicopters with more than two blades have pre-loaded springs and oleo dampers in order to eliminate ground resonance. The skids appear to play a significant role in the vibration response of several modes in this model. It is possible that the skids in the FEM do not accurately represent the OH-6A skids. It may be useful to model the skids with more accuracy. This could reduce the error in both the torsional mode and the second lateral mode.

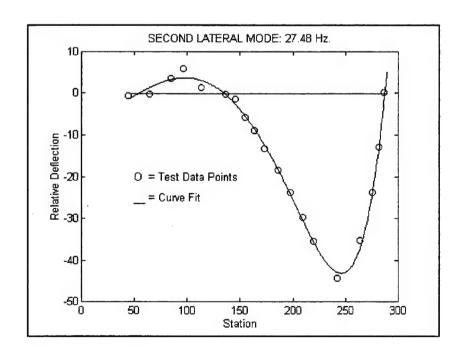
There is also some discrepancy in the mass and C.G. of the model. This could have contributed to the errors in some of the mode shapes. Without accurate weight data it is an extremely difficult task to track down the discrepancies between the test platform and the model. If more accurate weight data is required, a sensitivity analysis could be performed on the entire airframe using the built-in capabilities of NASTRAN.

APPENDIX A. EXPERIMENTAL MODE SHAPE PLOTS









APPENDIX B. MODE SHAPE EXTRACTION PROGRAM

```
% shapes m reads the mode shapes from an op4 file for computation in MATLAB.
% Written by Lt. Mike Pampalone, Naval Postgraduate School
clear
% Get filename and open file
filename=input('Enter the name of the NASTRAN op4 file>> ','s');
[fid,message]=fopen(filename,'rt');
if message~="
 disp(' Problem opening file. Check path/directory.')
 else
  disp(' File opened successfully. Reading Data...')
% See end of file for closing "end' statement
 exit=1;
 cnt lines=0;
 n=1;
 last line=0;
% Two while loops. This allows program to break from the inner loop while
% continuing to loop through lines of the op2 file. The file breaks from
% the outer loop when end of file is detected.
 while exit
 while 1
  next line=fgetl(fid);
  cnt lines=cnt lines+1;
% Look for end of file
  if ~isstr(next_line)
   exit=0;
   break
  end
% Read first line of file
  if(cnt lines=1)
```

```
modes=eval(['[',next line(1:8),']']);
    DOF=eval(['[',next line(9:16),']']);
    mode=0:
    break
   end
% Find the new mode number. The previous mode shape is evaluated to determine
% if the correct number of lines have been read. If not, it is padded
% with zeros. Next, the new mode shape is evaluated to determine if there are
% leading zeros. If so, it is padded. The index and mode number are then
% reset.
  if(eval(['[',next line(1:8),']'])=(mode+1));
    if(last line~=n-1)
     mode shape(n:last line,mode)=zeros(1:last line+1-n,1);
    end
    mode=mode+1;
    n=1:
    first line=eval(['[',next line(9:16),']']);
    if(first line~=1)
     mode shape(1:3*first line-3,mode)=zeros(1:3*first line-3,1);
     n=3*first line-2;
    last_line=eval(['[',next line(17:24),']']);
   break
  end
% If none of the above conditions are met, the line is written to the
% mode shape matrix in a column. Each column represents a different
% mode.
  mode\_shape(n,mode)=eval(['[',next\_line(1:21),']']);
  mode shape(n+1,mode)=eval(['[',next line(22:42),']']);
  mode\_shape(n+2,mode)=eval(['[',next line(43:63),']']);
  n=n+3;
 end
 end
 fclose(fid);
 disp('End of file detected. File closed.')
end
```

APPENDIX C. REDUCED MODE SHAPE DATA

% Reduced Analytical First Vertical Mode Shape

```
Vert1=[0.3803;0.2230;0.0673;-0.0201;-0.1525;-0.3473;-0.2892;-0.2985;...
-0.2973;-0.2959;-0.2881;-0.2548;-0.1520;-0.0374;0.3518;0.9097;1.2407];
```

% Reduced Analytical Second Vertical Mode Shape

```
Vert2=[-0.1014;-0.0453;0.0043;0.0349;0.0855;0.1326;0.1751;0.1972;... 0.2173;0.2370;0.2611;0.2774;0.2727;0.2592;0.1840;0.0483;-0.0335];
```

% Reduced Analytical Aft Vertical Mode Shape

```
VertA=[-0.0570;-0.0647;-0.0822;-0.0912;-0.1063;-0.1344;-0.1381;-0.1471;...
-0.1552;-0.1632;-0.1726;-0.1764;-0.1653;-0.1491;-0.0848;0.0169;0.0742]
```

% Reduced Analytical First Lateral Mode Shape

```
Lat1=[0.1795;0.1030;0.0252;-0.0183;-0.0828;-0.1454;-0.1320;-0.1426;...
-0.1513;-0.1528;-0.1454;-0.1298;-0.0979;-0.0615;0.0490;0.2003;0.2778];
```

% Reduced Analytical Second Lateral Mode Shape

```
Lat2=[0.0876;0.0333;-0.0453;-0.0804;-0.1275;-0.0657;0.2325;0.2717;0.3088;... 0.3376;0.3688;0.3822;0.3800;0.3616;0.2540;0.0550;-0.0336];
```

Reduced Analytical First Torsional Mode Shape (Vertical Deflection Only)

Tor1=[0.0902;0.0787;0.0689;0.0626;0.0498;0.0936;0.2806;0.6220];

% Experimental First Vertical Mode Shape

```
EVert1=[7.2153;3.8583;.232e-3;-1.0109;-3.3242;-7.0845;...
-7.6948;-5.1967;-5.0398;-3.874;-3.3242;-1.2556;1.82016;...
4.69972;13.2098;26.2452;32.9155];
```

% Experimental Second Vertical Mode Shape

```
EVert2=[2.9556;1.9342;.832;.490;-.347;-1.4015;-1.9482;-2.268;-2.6158; ... -2.9733;-3.2916;-3.455;-3.4877;-2.3296;-1.9118;-.110;.769];
```

```
% Experimental First Lateral Mode Shape
```

```
ELat1=[-20.839;-9.8965;2.0534;11.1376;23.564;24.2915;25.7875;27.7057;... 28.4033;27.6185;22.117;12.69;5.1226;-5.58;-51.8801;-82.343;-140.19];
```

% Experimental Second Lateral Mode Shape

```
ELat2=[-.616;-.343;3.42016;5.8998;1.28174;-.217;-1.4801;-5.891;-9.0354;...
-13.411;-18.55;-23.913;-29.82;-35.586;-44.425;-35.444;-23.956];
```

% Experimental First Torsional Mode Shape (Vertical Deflection only)

```
% Horizontal Stab
```

- % 13.079;-33.243;-91.553;-168.94;-235.75;
- % Stations along horizontal stab
- % 7.25 22.75 38 50.75 65.75
- % Vertical Stabs
- % 103.379;80.544;60.2861;37.886;12.0763;-24.937;-75.204;-151.72];
- % Stations along vertical stab
- % -28.5 -20.5 -12.5 -4.5 7.5 20.5 33.5 51.5
- % Data points truncated and ordered to match analytical set

ETor=[-151.7200;-75.2040;12.0763;37.886;103.3790;13.0790;-91.5530;-235.7500];

```
phi_exp=[ELat1,EVert1,EVert2,ELat2];
phi_anal=[Lat1,Vert1,Vert2,Lat2];
```

```
MAC1 =
```

```
    0.7038
    0.9476
    0.0529
    0.0164

    0.6227
    0.9209
    0.0100
    0.0000

    0.5533
    0.2067
    0.9026
    0.7022

    0.0003
    0.1106
    0.5029
    0.5440
```

```
phi_tor_exp=ETor;
phi_tor_anal=Tor1;
MAC2 =
```

0.6331

APPENDIX D. MAC CALCULATION PROGRAM

```
% fmac.m
% This function calculates the MAC matrix for a matrix onto itself
       [mac(a,a)] use mac = fmac(a)
% or between two matrices.
       [mac(a,b)] use mac = fmac(a,b)
% Written by Professor Josh Gordis, Naval Postgraduate School
function [mac]=fmac(a,b);
asize=size(a);
nacols=asize(1,2);
if nargin = 1;
  b = a;
  nbcols = nacols;
else
  bsize=size(b);
  nbcols=bsize(1,2);
end;
for i=1: nacols;
  for j=1: nbcols;
        top = (a(:,i)' *b(:,j))^2;
        bottom = (a(:,i)' * a(:,i)) * (b(:,j)' *b(:,j));
        mac(i,j) = top / bottom;
  end
end
```

APPENDIX E. NASTRAN FORMATTED EMPENNAGE DATA

```
$ OH-6A NASTRAN FEM modified empennage data. This was modified by Lt. Michael
$ Pampalone, USN, Naval Postgraduate School, 12 August 1996.
$
$
                             MODIFIED TAIL
$ BEGIN VERTICAL STABILIZER
$.....1.....2.....3.....4.....5....6.....7....8....9....10
CORD2R
            301
                    273.90
                            0.0 54.358 273.90 0.0
                                                    55.0+CD301
+CD301
          274.5
                 0.0 54.358
$
$ VERTICAL STABILIZER - TOP
GRID
         31018
                301
                       0.
                            0. 3.383
GRID
         31020
                301 2.127
                             1. 3.280
GRID
         31022
                301 2.127
                            -1. 3.280
GRID
         31024
                301 6.55
                            1. 3.067
GRID
        31025
                301 6.55
                            0. 3.067
GRID
        31026
                301 6.55
                            -1. 3.067
GRID
        31028
                301 14.98
                             0. 2.66
GRID
        31030
                301
                     1.47
                            0. 6.32
GRID
        31032
                301 3.60
                            1. 6.21
GRID
        31034
                301
                     3.60
                            -1. 6.21
GRID
        31036
                301 7.756
                             1. 6.01
GRID
        31038
                301 7.756
                            -1. 6.01
GRID
        31040
                301 15.99
                             0. 5.615
GRID
        31042
                301 15.64
                             0. 31.54
GRID
        31044
                             1. 31.51
                301 16.38
GRID
        31046
                301 16.38
                            -1. 31.51
GRID
                             1. 31.42
        31048
                301 18.17
GRID
        31050
                301 18.17
                            -1. 31.42
GRID
        31052
                301 24.66
                             0. 31.11
GRID
        31054
                301 22.75
                             0. 48.47
GRID
        31056
                301 24.89
                             1. 48.37
GRID
        31058
                301 24.89
                            -1. 48.37
GRID
        31060
                301 25.12
                             1. 48.35
GRID
        31062
                301 25.12
                            -1. 48.35
GRID
        31064
                301 30.46
                             0. 48.10
$
```

```
$ VERTICAL STABILIZER - BOTTOM
GRID
        31066
               301
                     0.
                          0. -3.383
GRID
        31068
               301
                   2.13
                           1. -3.339
GRID
        31070
                    2.13
                          -1. -3.339
               301
GRID
        31072
               301
                    6.55
                           1. -3.247
GRID
        31073
                    6.55
               301
                           0. -3.247
GRID
        31074
               301 6.55
                          -1. -3.247
GRID
        31076
               301 12.0
                           0. -3.134
GRID
        31078
               301 12.21
                           0. -26.76
GRID
        31080
               301 13.36
                           1. -26.72
GRID
        31082
               301 13.36
                           -1. -26.72
GRID
        31084
               301 15.12
                           1. -26.70
GRID
        31086
               301 15.12
                           -1. -26.70
GRID
        31088
               301 17.68
                           0. -26.65
$
$ FWD SPAR - VERT. STAB.
CROD
        10403 11030 31056 31044
CROD
        10404 11036 31044 31032
CROD
        10405 11042 31032 31020
        10406 11030 31058 31046
CROD
CROD
        10407 11036 31046 31034
CROD
        10408 11042 31034 31022
CROD
        10409 11030 31068 31080
CROD
        10410 11030 31070 31082
CSHEAR
         40483 14040 31056 31058 31046 31044
         40484 14048 31044 31046 31034 31032
CSHEAR
          40485 14055 31032 31034 31022 31020
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
          40486 14040 31068 31070 31082 31080
$
$ AFT SPAR - VERT. STAB.
CROD
        10411 11030 31060 31048
CROD
        10412 11044 31048 31036
CROD
        10413 11057 31036 31024
CROD
        10414 11030 31062 31050
        10415 11044 31050 31038
CROD
        10416 11057 31038 31026
CROD
CROD
        10417 11030 31072 31084
CROD
        10418 11030 31074 31086
         40487 14040 31060 31062 31050 31048
CSHEAR
         40488 14058 31048 31050 31038 31036
CSHEAR
CTRIA3
         30124 13071 31036 31038 31025
```

```
30125 13071 31024 31025 31036
CTRIA3
CTRIA3
        30126 13071 31026 31025 31038
CTRIA3
        30127 13071 31084 31086 31073
CTRIA3
        30128 13071 31072 31073 31084
CTRIA3
        30129 13071 31074 31073 31086
$ TOP VERT. STAB. LOWER END CAP
CBAR
        20403 12014 31018 31020 31028
CBAR
        20404 12014 31018 31022 31028
        10419 11298 31020 31022
CROD
CBAR
        20405 12298 31020 31024 31028
CBAR
        20406 12298 31022 31026 31028
CBAR
        20407 12298 31024 31025 31036
        20408 12298 31026 31025 31038
CBAR
CBAR
        20409 12014 31024 31028 31018
CBAR
        20410 12014 31026 31028 31018
CTRIA3 30130 13025 31018 31020 31022
CSHEAR 40489 14250 31020 31022 31026 31024
CTRIA3
        30131 13025 31024 31026 31028
$
$ TOP VERT. STAB. LOWER RIB
        20411 12014 31030 31032 31040
CBAR
CBAR
        20412 12014 31030 31034 31040
        10420 11298 31032 31034
CROD
CBAR
        20413 12014 31032 31036 31040
CBAR
        20414 12014 31034 31038 31040
CROD 10421 11298 31036 31038
CBAR
        20415 12014 31036 31040 31030
CBAR
        20416 12014 31036 31040 31030
$
$ TOP VERT. STAB. INTERMEDIATE RIB
CBAR
        20417 12014 31042 31044 31052
CBAR
        20418 12014 31042 31046 31052
CROD
        10422 11298 31044 31046
CBAR
        20419 12014 31044 31048 31052
CBAR
        20420 12014 31046 31050 31052
CROD
        10423 11298 31048 31050
CBAR
        20421 12014 31048 31052 31042
CBAR
        20422 12014 31050 31052 31042
$
$ TOP VERT. STAB. UPPER END CAP
```

```
CBAR
        20423 12014 31054 31056 31064
CBAR
        20424 12014 31054 31058 31064
CROD
        10424 11298 31056 31058
CBAR
        20425 12298 31056 31060 31064
        20426 12298 31058 31062 31064
CBAR
      10425 11298 31060 31062
CROD
CBAR
        20427 12014 31060 31064 31054
CBAR
        20428 12014 31062 31064 31054
CTRIA3 30132 13025 31054 31056 31058
CSHEAR 40490 14250 31056 31058 31062 31060
CTRIA3
         30133 13025 31060 31062 31064
$
$ BOTTOM VERT. STAB. LOWER END CAP
CBAR
        20429 12017 31078 31080 31088
CBAR
        20430 12017 31078 31082 31088
CROD
        10426 11120 31080 31082
CBAR
        20431 12120 31080 31084 31088
CBAR
        20432 12120 31082 31086 31088
CROD
       10427 11120 31084 31086
CBAR
        20433 12017 31084 31088 31078
CBAR
        20434 12017 31086 31088 31078
CTRIA3
        30134 13025 31078 31080 31082
CSHEAR 40491 14250 31080 31082 31086 31084
CTRIA3
        30135 13025 31084 31086 31088
$ BOTTOM VERT. STAB. UPPER END CAP
CBAR
        20435 12017 31066 31068 31076
CBAR
        20436 12017 31066 31070 31076
CROD
       10428 11120 31068 31070
CBAR
        20437 12298 31068 31072 31076
CBAR
        20438 12298 31070 31074 31076
CBAR
        20439 12298 31072 31073 31084
        20440 12298 31074 31073 31086
CBAR
CBAR
        20441 12017 31072 31076 31066
        20442 12017 31074 31076 31066
CBAR
CTRIA3
       30136 13025 31066 31068 31070
CSHEAR 40492 14250 31068 31070 31074 31072
CTRIA3
        30137 13025 31072 31074 31076
$
$ SKIN
CSHEAR 40493 14032 31056 31044 31048 31060
```

```
CSHEAR
         40494 14032 31058 31046 31050 31062
         40495 14032 31044 31032 31036 31048
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
          40496 14032 31046 31034 31038 31050
CSHEAR
         40497 14032 31032 31020 31024 31036
CSHEAR
         40498 14032 31034 31022 31026 31038
         40499 14032 31068 31080 31084 31072
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
         40500 14032 31070 31082 31086 31074
CSHEAR
         40501 14020 31066 31068 31080 31078
CSHEAR
         40502 14020 31066 31070 31082 31078
CSHEAR
         40503 14020 31076 31072 31084 31088
CSHEAR
         40504 14020 31076 31074 31086 31088
$
CSHEAR
         40505 14020 31054 31042 31044 31056
CSHEAR
         40506 14020 31054 31042 31046 31058
CSHEAR
         40507 14020 31042 31030 31032 31044
CSHEAR
         40508 14020 31042 31030 31034 31046
CSHEAR
         40509 14020 31030 31018 31020 31032
CSHEAR
         40510 14020 31030 31018 31022 31034
         40511 14020 31064 31060 31048 31052
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
         40512 14020 31064 31062 31050 31052
CSHEAR
         40513 14020 31052 31048 31036 31040
         40514 14020 31052 31050 31038 31040
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
         40515 14020 31040 31036 31024 31028
CSHEAR
         40516 14020 31040 31038 31020 31028.
$
$ HORIZONTAL STABILIZER
$
GRID
        32002
                    0.0 3.383
               301
                               0.0
GRID
        32004
               301
                   6.55 2.60
                              0.74
GRID
        32005
               301
                   6.55 3.157 -0.09
GRID
        32006
                   6.56 3.72 -0.92
               301
        32008
GRID
               301 11.16 2.44
                               0.68
GRID
        32010
               301 11.19
                         3.56 -0.98
GRID
        32012
               301 17.74
                         2.77 -0.24
GRID
        32014
                   0.13
               301
                         6.28
                              1.95
GRID
        32016
               301
                    6.67
                         5.49
                              2.69
GRID
        32018
               301
                    6.69
                         6.61
                              1.03
```

```
GRID
       32020
               301 11.30 5.33 2.63
GRID
       32022
               301 11.32 6.45 0.97
GRID
       32024
               301 17.86 5.67 1.71
GRID
       32026
               301 1.23 31.60 18.91
GRID
       32028
               301 7.78 30.82 19.65
GRID
       32030
               301 7.79 31.94 17.99
GRID
       32032
               301 12.41 30.65 19.58
GRID
       32034
               301 12.42 31.78 17.92
GRID
       32036
               301 18.97 30.99 18.66
GRID
       32038
               301 2.29 55.89 35.19
GRID
       32040
               301 8.84 55.11 35.93
GRID
       32042
               301 8.86 56.23 34.27
GRID
       32044
               301 13.47 54.95 35.86
GRID
       32046
               301 13.49 56.07 34.20
GRID
       32048
              301 20.03 55.28 34.94
$
$ FWD SPAR
        10430 11030 32004 32016
CROD
CROD
        10431 11030 32016 32028
CROD
        10432 11030 32028 32040
        10433 11030 32006 32018
CROD
CROD 10434 11030 32018 32030
CROD
        10435 11030 32030 32042
CSHEAR 40520 14040 32004 32006 32018 32016
CSHEAR 40521 14040 32016 32018 32030 32028
CSHEAR 40522 14040 32028 32030 32042 32040
$ AFT SPAR
CROD
        10436 11030 32008 32020
CROD
        10437 11030 32020 32032
CROD
        10438 11030 32032 32044
$
CROD
        10439 11030 32010 32022
        10440 11030 32022 32034
CROD
CROD
        10441 11030 32034 32046
CSHEAR
         40523 14040 32008 32010 32022 32020
CSHEAR
         40524 14040 32020 32022 32034 32032
CSHEAR
         40525 14040 32032 32034 32046 32044
```

```
$
$ INBOARD END CAP
        20445 12067 32002 32004 32006
CBAR
CBAR
        20446 12177 32004 32008 32006
CBAR
        20447 12067 32008 32012 32006
CBAR
        20448 12067 32012 32010 32004
CBAR
        20449 12177 32010 32006 32004
CBAR
        20450 12067 32006 32002 32004
CROD
        10442 11020 32004 32005
CROD
        10443 11020 32005 32006
CROD
        10444 11020 32008 32010
CTRIA3
        30140 15032 32004 32005 32002
CTRIA3
        30142 15032 32005 32006 32002
CTRIA3
        30143 15032 32004 32005 32008
CTRIA3 30144 15032 32005 32006 32010
CTRIA3
        30145 15032 32008 32010 32006
CTRIA3
        30146 15032 32008 32010 32012
$ INBOARD RIB
CBAR
        20451 12014 32014 32016 32024
CBAR
        20452 12014 32016 32020 32024
CBAR
        20453 12014 32020 32024 32014
CBAR
        20454 12014 32024 32022 32014
CBAR
        20455 12014 32022 32018 32024
CBAR
        20456 12014 32018 32014 32024
CROD
        10445 11018 32016 32018
CSHEAR 40526 14025 32016 32020 32022 32018
CTRIA3 30147 13025 32014 32016 32018
CTRIA3
        30148 13025 32020 32022 32024
$
$ INTERMEDIATE RIB
CBAR
        20457 12014 32026 32028 32036
CBAR
        20458 12014 32028 32032 32036
CBAR
        20459 12014 32032 32036 32026
CBAR
        20460 12014 32036 32034 32026
CBAR
        20461 12014 32034 32030 32036
CBAR
        20462 12014 32030 32026 32036
CROD
        10446 11018 32028 32030
CSHEAR 40527 14025 32028 32032 32034 32030
CTRIA3
       30149 13025 32026 32028 32030
CTRIA3
        30150 13025 32032 32034 32036
```

```
$
$ OUTBOARD END CAP
        20463 12022 32038 32040 32048
CBAR
        20464 12022 32040 32044 32048
CBAR
CBAR
        20465 12022 32044 32048 32042
CBAR
        20466 12022 32048 32046 32038
CBAR
        20467 12022 32046 32042 32048
CBAR
        20468 12022 32042 32038 32048
CROD
       10447 11018 32040 32042
CSHEAR 40528 14040 32040 32044 32046 32042
CTRIA3 30151 15040 32040 32042 32038
CTRIA3 30152 15040 32044 32046 32048
$ SKIN
CROD
        10448 11016 32012 32024
CROD
        10449 11016 32024 32036
CROD
        10450 11016 32036 32048
CSHEAR 40529 14020 32002 32004 32016 32014
CSHEAR
         40530 14020 32004 32008 32020 32016
CSHEAR
         40531 14020 32008 32012 32024 32020
         40532 14020 32002 32006 32018 32014
CSHEAR
         40533 14020 32006 32010 32022 32018
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
         40534 14020 32010 32012 32024 32022
CSHEAR
         40535 14020 32014 32016 32028 32026
CSHEAR
         40536 14020 32016 32020 32032 32028
        40537 14020 32020 32024 32036 32032
CSHEAR
         40538 14020 32014 32018 32030 32026
CSHEAR
CSHEAR
         40539 14020 32018 32022 32034 32030
CSHEAR
         40540 14020 32022 32024 32036 32034
CSHEAR 40541 14020 32026 32028 32040 32038
CSHEAR
         40542 14020 32028 32032 32044 32040
CSHEAR 40543 14020 32032 32036 32048 32044
CSHEAR 40544 14020 32026 32030 32042 32038
CSHEAR 40545 14020 32030 32034 32046 32042
CSHEAR 40546 14020 32034 32036 32048 32046
$ CONNECTION BETWEEN VERTICAL STAB. AND TAILBOOM
RBAR 50003 27302 31018 123456 123456
```

```
RBAR 50004 28002 31025 123456
                                    123456
RBAR 50005 28010 31073 123456
                                    123456
RBAR 50006 27310 31066 123456
                                   123456
$ CONNECTION BETWEEN HORIZONTAL STAB. AND TAILBOOM
RBAR 50007 27306 32002 123456
                                   123456
RBAR 50008 28006 32005 123456
                                    123456
$ CONNECTING STRUT BETWEEN VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL STABS.
CBAR 20469 12022 32028 31048 31050
$ ****** MODIFIED TAIL SECTION MASS ******
CMASS1 6320221 6320221 32022
CMASS1 6320222 6320221 32022
                            2
CMASS1 6320223 6320221 32022 3
CMASS1 6320224 6320224 32022 4
CMASS1 6320225 6320225 32022 5
CMASS1 6320226 6320226 32022 6
PMASS 6320221 38.0
PMASS 6320224 100.0
PMASS 6320225 524.0
PMASS 6320226 600.0
```

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